of those who would win everlasting rest.' And adds, 'There is hardly a city in India, through its length and breadth, from the river of Sind to the sacred Ganges, from Himala's diadem of ice-peaks to the throne of his virgin daughter, Rudra's destined bride, that has not supplied at one time or other contributions of wealth to the edifices which crown the hill of Pálitána. Street after street, square after square, extend these shrines of the Jain faith with their stately enclosures, half-palace, half-fortress, raised in marble magnificence, upon the lonely and majestic mountain, and like the mansions of another world, far removed in upper air from the ordinary tread of mortals.' Owing to the special sanctity of Satrunjaya, Jains from all parts of India are anxious to construct temples on the hill; and all members of the Jain faith feel it a duty to perform, if possible, one pilgrimage here during their life.

The following description of this wonderful temple-hill is condensed from an account by Mr. Burgess :—

'At the foot of the ascent there are some steps with many little canopies or cells, a foot and a half to three feet square, open only in front, and each having in its floor a marble slab carved with the representation of the soles of two feet (*charan*), very flat ones, and generally with the toes all of one length. A little behind, where the ball of the great toe ought to be, there is a diamond-shaped mark divided into four smaller figures by two cross lines, from the end of one of which a waved line is drawn to the front of the foot. Round the edges of the slab there is usually an inscription in Deva-nágari characters, and between the foot-marks an elongated figure like a head of Indian corn with the point slightly turned over. These cells are numerous all the way up the hill, and a large group of them is found on the south-west corner of it behind the temple of Adíswar Bhagwán. They are the temples erected by poorer Saráwaks or Jains, who, unable to afford the expense of a complete temple, with its hall and sanctuary enshrining a marble *murti* or image, manifest their devotion to their creed by erecting these miniature temples over the *charana* of their Jainas or Arhats.

'The path is paved with rough stones all the way up, only interrupted here and there by regular flights of steps. At frequent intervals also there are rest-houses, more pretty at a distance than convenient for actual use, but still deserving of attention. High up, we come to a small temple of the Hindu monkey-god, Hánumán, the image bedaubed with vermilion in ultra-barbaric style; at this point the path bifurcates—to the right leading to the northern peak, and to the left to the valley between, and through it to the southern summit. A little higher up, on the former route, is the shrine of Hengar, a Musalmán *pír*, so that Hindu and Moslem alike contend for the representation of their creeds on this sacred hill of the Jains.

'On reaching the summit of the mountain, the view that presents itself from the top of the walls is magnificent in extent; a splendid setting for the unique picture—this work of human toil we have reached. To the east, the prospect extends to the Gulf of Cambay near Gogo and Bhaunagar; to the north, it is bounded by the granite range of Sihor (Sehore) and the Chamárdi peak; to the north-west and west, the plain extends as far as the eye can reach, except where broken due west by the summits of Mount Girnár—revered alike by Hindu, Buddhist, and Jain, the latter of whom claim it as sacred to Nemináth their twenty-second Tirthankar. From west to east, like a silver ribbon across the foreground to the south, winds the Satrunjaya river, which the eye follows until it is lost between the Talaja and Khokara Hills in the south-west. But after this digression, let us return to the scene beside us. How shall I describe it? It is truly a city of temples —for, except a few tanks, there is nothing else within the gates, and there is a cleanliness, withal, about every square and passage, porch and hall, that is itself no mean source of pleasure. The silence, too, is striking. Now and then in the mornings you hear a bell for a few seconds, or the beating of a drum for as short a time, and on holidays chants from the larger temples meet your ear; but generally during the after-part of the day the only sounds are those of vast flocks of pigeons that rush about spasmodically from the roof of one temple to that of another, apparently as an exercise in fluttering and just to keep their wings in use. Parroquets and squirrels, doves and ringdoves abound, and peacocks are occasionally met with on the outer walls. The top of the hill consists of two ridges, each about 350 yards long, with a valley between; the southern ridge is higher at the western end than the northern, but this in turn is higher at the eastern extremity. Each of these ridges, and the two large enclosures that fill the valley, are surrounded by massive battlemented walls fitted for defence. The buildings on both ridges, again, are divided into separate enclosures, called *tuks*, generally containing one principal temple, with varying numbers of smaller ones. Each of these enclosures is protected by strong gates and walls, and all gates are carefully closed at sundown.'

A description of one of these *tuks* must suffice here, but the reader who wishes to pursue the subject will find an account of the other temples in Mr. Burgess' *Notes of a Visit to Satrunjaya Hill*, published at Bombay. The *tuk* now to be described is that of Khartarvasi, of which the principal temple is that of the Chaumukh or 'four-faced' Jaina occupying the centre. 'It is,' says Mr. Burgess (*op. cit.*), 'a fine pile of the sort, and may be considered a type of its class. It stands on a platform raised fully 2 feet above the level of the court, and 57 feet wide by about 67 in length, but the front of the building extends some distance beyond the end of this. The body of the temple consists

of two square apartments, with a square porch or *mandap* to the east, from which a few steps ascend to the door of the *antarála* or hall, 31 feet square inside, with a vaulted roof rising from twelve pillars. Passing through this, we enter by a large door into the shrine or *garbha griha*, 23 feet square, with four columns at the corners of the altar or throne of the image. Over this rises the tower or *vimana* to a height of 96 feet from the level of the pavement. The shrine in Hindu temples is always dark, and entered only by the single door in front; Jain temples, on the contrary, have very frequently several entrances. In this instance, as in that of most of the larger temples, besides the door from the *antarála*, three other large doors open out into porticoes on the platform—a verandah being carried round this part of the building from one door to another. The front temple has also two side doors opening upon the platform. The walls of the shrine, having to support the tower, are very thick, and contain cells or chapels opening from the verandah; thus the doors into the shrine stand back into the wall. There are ten cells, and some of them contain little images of Tírthankars; those at the corners open to two sides. The pillars that support the verandah deserve notice. They are of the general form everywhere prevalent here—square columns, to the sides of which we might suppose very thin pilasters of about half the breadth had been applied. They have high bases, the shafts carved with flower patterns each different from its fellow, the usual bracket capitals slanting downwards on each side and supporting *gopis*, on whose heads rest the abacus—or rather these figures, with a sort of canopy over the head of each, form second and larger brackets. The floors of the larger temples are of beautifully tesselated marble—black, white, and yellowish brown. The patterns are very much alike, except in details, and consist chiefly of varieties and combinations of the figure called by the Jains *Nandavarta*—a sort of complicated square fret—the cognizance of the eighteenth Jaina. The shrine contains a *sinhásan* or pedestal for the image; in this temple it is of the purest white marble, fully 2 feet high and 12 square. Each face has a centre panel, elaborately carved, and three of less breadth on each side, the one nearer the centre always a little in advance of that outside it.

'On the throne sit four large white marble figures of Adináth, not specially well proportioned, each facing one of the doors of the shrine. These are large figures, perhaps as large as any on the hill; they sit with their feet crossed in front, after the true Buddha style, the outer side of each thigh joining that of his fellow, and their heads rising about 10 feet above the pedestal. The marble is from Mokhrano in Márwár, and the carriage is said to have cost an almost incredible sum. The aspect of these, and of all the images, is peculiar; frequently on the brow and middle of the breast there is a brilliant, set in silver or

gold, and almost always the breasts are mounted with one of the precious metals, whilst there are occasionally gold plates on the shoulders, elbow, and knee-joints, and a crown on the head—that on the principal one in the Motisah being a very elegant and massive gold one. But the peculiar feature is the eyes, which seem to peer at you from every chapel like those of so many cats. They appear to be made of silver overlaid with pieces of glass, very clumsily cemented on, and in every case projecting so far, and of such a form, as to give one the idea of their all wearing spectacles with lenticular glasses over very watery eyes in diseased sockets.

'The original temple in this *tuk* is said to date back to a king Vikrama; but whether he of the Samvat era, 57 B.C., or Harsha Vikramáditya, about 500 A.D., or some other, is not told. It appears to have been rebuilt in its present form about 1619 A.D., by Seva Somjí of Ahmadábád, for we read thus:—"Samvat 1675, in the time of Sultán Núr-ud-dín Jahángír, Sawái Vijaya Rájá, and the princes Sultán Khushru and Khurmá, on Saturday, Baisákh Sudi 13th, Devráj and his family, of which were Somjí and his wife, Rájáldevi, erected the temple of the four-faced Adináth," etc. A stair on the north side leads to the upper storey of the tower. This temple is said to contain a hundred and twenty-five images.'

Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, has the following remarks on the Jain temple-cities, with special reference to this, the greatest of them all:—'The grouping together of their temples into what may be called "cities of temples," is a peculiarity which the Jains practised to a greater extent than the followers of any other religion in India. The Buddhists grouped their *stupas* and *viháras* near and around sacred spots, as at Sánchi, Manikyala, or in Peshávar, and elsewhere; but they were scattered, and each was supposed to have a special meaning, or to mark some sacred spot. The Hindus also grouped their temples, as at Bhuvaneswar or Benares, in great numbers; but in all cases, so far as we know, because these were the centres of a population who believed in the gods to whom the temples were dedicated, and wanted them for the purposes of their worship. Neither of these religions, however, possesses such a group of temples, for instance, as that at Satrunjaya, or Pálitána as it is usually called, in Gujarát. No survey has yet been made of it, nor have its temples been counted; but it covers a large space of ground, and its shrines are scattered by hundreds over the summits of two extensive hills and the valley between them. The larger ones are situated in *tuks*, or separate enclosures, surrounded by high fortified walls; the smaller ones line the silent streets. A few *yatis* or priests sleep in the temples and perform the daily services, and a few attendants are constantly there to keep the place clean, which they do with the most assiduous attention, or to feed the sacred pigeons, who

are the sole denizens of the spot; but there are no human habitations, properly so called, within the walls. The pilgrim or the stranger ascends in the morning, and returns when he has performed his devotions or satisfied his curiosity. He must not eat, or at least must not cook his food, on the sacred hill, and he must not sleep there. It is a city of the gods, and meant for them only, and not intended for the use of mortals.

'Jaina temples and shrines are, of course, to be found in cities, where there are a sufficient number of votaries to support a temple, as in other religions; but beyond this, the Jains seem, almost more than any other sect, to have realized the idea that to build a temple, and to place an image in it, was in itself a highly meritorious act, wholly irrespective of its use to any of their co-religionists. Building a temple is with them a prayer in stone, which they conceive to be eminently acceptable to the deity, and likely to secure them benefits both here and hereafter.

'It is in consequence of the Jains believing to a greater extent than the other Indian sects in the efficacy of temple-building as a means of salvation, that their architectural performances bear so much larger a proportion to their numbers than those of other religions. It may also be owing to the fact that nine out of ten, or ninety-nine in a hundred, of the Jain temples are the gifts of single wealthy individuals of the middle classes, that these buildings generally are small and deficient in that grandeur of proportion that marks the buildings undertaken by royal command or belonging to important organized communities. It may, however, be also owing to this that their buildings are more elaborately finished than those of more national importance. When a wealthy individual of the class who build these temples desires to spend his money on such an object, he is much more likely to feel pleasure in elaborate detail and exquisite finish than on great purity or grandeur of conception.

'All these peculiarities are found in a more marked degree at Pálitána than at almost any other known place, and, fortunately for the student of the style, extending through all the ages during which it flourished. Some of the temples are as old as the 11th century, and they are spread pretty evenly over all the intervening period down to the present century.

'But the largest number, and some of the most important, are now erecting, or were erected in the present century, or in the memory of living men. Fortunately, too, these modern examples by no means disgrace the age in which they are built. Their sculptures are inferior, and some of their details are deficient in meaning and expression; but, on the whole, they are equal, or nearly so, to the average examples of earlier ages. It is this that makes Pálitána one of the most interesting

places that can be named for the philosophical student of architectural art, inasmuch as he can there see the various processes by which cathedrals were produced in the Middle Ages, carried on on a larger scale than almost anywhere else, and in a more natural manner. It is by watching the methods still followed in designing buildings in that remote locality, that we become aware how it is that the uncultivated Hindu can rise in architecture to a degree of originality and perfection which has not been attained in Europe since the Middle Ages, but which might easily be recovered by following the same processes.'

Palivela (*Pullivelu*).—Town in Amalápur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 41′ N., long. 81° 55′ E. Population (1871) 5315, inhabiting 1156 houses; and (1881) 5561, inhabiting 1005 houses. Hindus number 5300; Muhammadans, 253; and Christians, 8. Palivela lies on the bank of the Amalápur Canal, which connects Rájámahendri (Rájáhmundry) with Amalápur. Kottapetta, the head-quarters of the deputy-*tahsíldár*, is a hamlet of Palivela.

Páliyád.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 227 square miles, containing 17 villages, with 7 separate shareholders. Population (1881) 9662. Estimated revenue in 1881, £4000; tribute of £90, 14s. is paid to the British Government, and £30, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Formerly (1809) the head-quarters of a Káthiáwár Political officer. A flourishing village called after the estate lies 8 miles west of Kundli railway station. It exports grain and cotton to Botád (10 miles) and Ránpur (11 miles)—both stations on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Population of Páliyád village (1881) 3368.

Paliyáverkádu.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PULICAT.

Palkherá.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Warorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; traversed by the main road from Kámthá to Sákolí, and comprising 21 villages. Area, 39 square miles, one-fourth of which is cultivated. Population (1881) 7364. A good deal of sugar-cane is grown, and the forests supply *sál* and *bíjesál* timber. Until 1856, the estate was a dependency of Kámthá. The chief and most of the population are Kunbís.

Palkole.—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PALAKOLLU.

Pálkonda (or *Sesáchalam: Pál*, 'milk;' *Konda*, 'a hill').—Range of mountains in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; lying between 13° 43′ 30″ and 14° 27′ N. lat., and between 78° 56′ and 79° 28′ 30″ E. long.; average elevation above the sea, about 2000 feet; highest point, Buthaid, 3060 feet. Starting from the sacred Tirupati (Tripati) Hill, and running north-west for 45 miles, the range then turns nearly due west, running across the District to the frontier of Bellary. To the

first portion the name Pálkonda is generally reserved, the part which crosses the District being called Sesháchalam. Mr. Gribble, writing of the entire chain, says:—'This is not only the largest and most extensive of all the Cuddapah ranges, but it also presents very marked features, and differs in appearance from the others. The Tirupati hill is 2500 feet above the sea, and the Pálkonda range continues at about the same uniform height very nearly throughout the whole of its extent. There are very few prominent peaks; and at a distance of a few miles, it presents the appearance, to any one standing on the inside portion, of a wall of unvarying height, shutting the country in as far as the eye can reach. The top of this range is more or less flat, forming a table-land of some extent. On both sides the slopes are well clothed with forests, which, near the railway, are especially valuable, and form the important Balapalli, Yerraguntakota, and Kodúr reserves. A noticeable feature in this range, and especially on its south-western slopes, is the manner in which the quartzite rocks crop out at the summit. The rock suddenly rises perpendicularly out of the slope, and is wrested and contorted into various fantastic shapes, which not unfrequently give the appearance of an old ruined castle or fort. These hills were in former days a favourite resort of *dakáits* or gang-robbers, probably because they are not so feverish as the other hills of the main division. They are now nearly free from these pests of society. Wild beasts, however, are still to be found. Tigers are becoming annually more scarce; of leopards there are a large number, which are also very destructive; a few *sámbhar* deer are to be found, and a few bears, but the hills have been too much marked to afford a good field for sportsmen.'

The area of Balapalli (East and West), Yerraguntakota, and Kodúr forest reserves in 1883–84 was 18,965 acres. The chief trees were—red sanders (Pterocarpus santalinus), *yeppi* (Hardwickia binata), *tamba* (Shorea Tumbuggaia), *jalári* (Shorea Talura), and teak of small size.

Palkonda.—Town and Agency Tract in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PALAKONDA.

Palk's Bay and Straits.—Gulf and channel between the mainland of India and the north part of Ceylon, named by the Dutch after Governor Palk. The gulf is bounded by Calimere Point and the coast of Tanjore to the northward and westward; by Adam's Bridge and its contiguous islands to the south; and by the north part of Ceylon, with its islands, to the east. The Dutch describe *three* channels between Calimere Point and the north end of Ceylon, which lead into Palk's Bay; but the southern channel, called Palk's Strait, is probably the only one that may be considered safe for large ships.

Horsburgh, from whose account in the *Sailing Directions* this article is condensed, supplies the following details:—

'Palk's Bay having been surveyed by the officers of the East India

Company, the following directions for its navigation are given by Mr. Franklin:—"There are two good entrances into Palk's Bay from the eastward—one between Point Calimere and the northern end of the middle banks, having 19 to 24 feet; the other between the southern end of the same banks and the north coast of Ceylon, with 5½ to 6 fathoms. Sailing directions were published some years back for the northern passage, but I would strongly recommend all commanders with a vessel drawing 12 feet to make use of that to the southward, except with a leading wind, or with the aid of steam. . . . . The following are the dangers in Palk's Bay:—

"1st. The middle banks—described by Horsburgh (pp. 553, 554).

"2nd. A long sandy spit, with from 1 to 2 fathoms over it, stretching east by south 13 miles from a low point above Kotepatnam, on the coast of India. It has generally a heavy swash of sea over it, and should not be approached from the eastward nearer than 6 fathoms. Captain Powell places its eastern extremity in 10° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and 79° 19′ 30″ E. long., allowing Galle to be in 80° 16′ E. Its bearing from Pámbam (Paumbem) is N.N.E. 45 miles, and from Point Calimere S.W.½W. 29 miles.

"3rd. The foul ground off the north-west end of Ceylon to the eastward of the opening between that and Karativu, where the coast ought not to be approached nearer than 2 miles; for although at present there are 12 to 15 feet over the knolls, the depth may decrease, as they are composed of coral.

"4th. A detached rock, about the size of a ship's boat, with only 2 feet water over it, between Purlitivu and the Devil's Point, having the following bearings:—Devil's Point, south 3 miles; south end of Purlitivu, E.S.E. 2½ miles.

"Lastly. Some rocks awash, which lie about 1¼ mile off the north-east end of Rámeswaram Island, where the soundings ought not to be shoaled to less than 5 fathoms. Care should be taken in the north-east monsoon not to get into the bay to the eastward of this island, as it will be found difficult to work out again."'

Mr. Nelson, author of the *Madura Manual* (1868), describes the Straits as abounding in 'shoals, currents, sunken rocks, and blind sand-banks;' and adds, 'the passage through its entrance is full of difficulty and danger.' The fury of the north-east monsoon is particularly felt in the Straits. See also Commander Taylor's *India Directory*, p. 450 (Allen, 1874).

Palladam.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 742 square miles. Population (1881) 213,391, namely, 103,116 males and 110,275 females, dwelling in 194 villages, and occupying 47,971 houses. Hindus number 207,895; Muhammadans, 3387; Christians, 2107; and 'others,' 2. In 1883 the *táluk*

contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 79 men. Land revenue, £36,755.

Palladam (*Pulladum*).—Head-quarters of Palladam *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 59′ N., long. 77° 20′ E. Population (1871) 945, inhabiting 199 houses; and (1881) 1121, inhabiting 173 houses. Two cotton presses; ruins of an old fort; post-office.

Pal Lahára.—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 21° 8′ 30″ and 21° 40′ 35″ N. lat., and between 85° 3′ and 85° 21′ 30″ E. long. Area, 452 square miles. Population (1881) 14,887. Bounded on the north by the Chutiá Nágpur State of Bonái, east by Keunjhar, south by Tálcher, and west by Bámra. The east and north of the State are occupied by hills. A magnificent mountain, MALAYAGIRI (3895 feet), towers above the lesser ranges. Some of the finest *sál* forests in the world are found in Pal Lahára; its agricultural products consist of the usual coarse grains and oil-seeds, but it has nothing worthy of the name of trade. Of the total population in 1881 (14,887), Hindus numbered 14,002; Muhammadans, 8; and non-Hindu aborigines, 877. The real number of aborigines is, however, much greater, and in 1871 they were returned at 6340. The aboriginal tribes of Pal Lahára are chiefly Gonds and Savars who have adopted some form of Hinduism, and have been returned as Hindus in the Census of 1881. The number of villages in the State was returned (1881) at 199, and the inhabited houses at 2718. Lahára, the residence of the Rájá, situated in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 85° 13′ 46″ E., is the only village containing upwards of 100 houses. The Midnapur and Sambalpur high road passes through the State from east to west.

Pal Lahára was formerly feudatory to Keunjhar, but was separated in consequence of quarrels arising from the fact that the Keunjhar Rájá once compelled his vassal to dance before him in woman's clothes. As the price of peace, the Pal Lahára chief was exempted from any longer paying his tribute to the Keunjhar Rájá, and now pays it to the British Government direct. The money, however, is still credited in the treasury accounts to the credit of the Keunjhar State, although for all practical purposes Pal Lahára is independent of the Keunjhar Rájá, and completely disowns his authority. For services rendered at the time of the Keunjhar rebellion in 1867–68, the Pal Lahára chief received the title of Rájá Bahádur. The present chief is the thirty-fourth in descent from the original founder of the State. The estimated annual revenue is £120; the Rájá's militia consists of 67 men, and the police force of 57 men.

Pallapatti.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* ARAVA KURICHI.

Pallávaram (*Palaveram*).—Town in Saidapet *táluk*, Chengalpat

(Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., on a wide plain, west of a range of stony hills, 3 miles south of St. Thomas' Mount, and 11 miles south-west of Madras. Population (1881) 3956, occupying 793 houses. Hindus number 2077; Muhammadans, 908; Christians, 970; and 'others,' 1. A military cantonment and pensioners' station, with a garrison of about 650 men. Formerly it was called the 'Presidency Cantonment,' and had lines sufficient for 4 native regiments. The place is hot, but not unhealthy. Elevation, about 500 feet. A station on the South Indian Railway; cantonment magistrate's court; post-office.

Palmá.—Deserted Jain settlement; situated within a few miles of Puruliá, and near the Kásái (Cossye) river, in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. The following description of the ruins is given by Colonel Dalton:—

'The principal temple is on a mound covered with stone and brick, the débris of buildings, through which many fine old *pípal* trees have pierced, and under their spreading branches the gods of the fallen temple have found shelter. In different places are sculptures of perfectly nude male figures, standing on pedestals and under canopies, with Egyptian head-dresses, the arms hanging down straight by their sides, the hands turned in and touching the body near the knees. One of these images is larger than life. It is broken away from the slab on which it was cut, and the head, separated from the body, lies near. At the feet of each idol are two smaller figures with *chaurís* in their hands, looking up at the principal figure. I have now seen several of these figures, and there can, I think, be no doubt that they are images of the Tírthankaras of the Jains, who are always thus figured, naked or 'sky-clad,' each with his representative animal or symbol. Lieutenant Money also observed a stone pillar, set up perpendicularly, standing 12 feet high by 1½ foot square, with corners chamfered, making it an octagon; and near this, four more of the Tírthankaras are found. All about this temple mound are other mounds of cut stone and bricks, showing that there must have been here, at a remote period, a numerous people, far more advanced in civilisation than the Bhúmij and Baurí tribes who have succeeded them.'

Pálmaner (formerly called *Venkatagirikota*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 447 square miles. Population (1872) 60,211; (1881) 41,815, namely, 21,184 males and 20,631 females, dwelling in 1 town and 159 villages, and occupying 8867 houses. Hindus number 39,194; Muhammadans, 2526; and Christians, 95. During the famine of 1876–78 the *táluk* suffered severely, and many small villages have been depopulated. The Census of 1872 returned 565 villages, and that of 1881 only 160; the population has decreased by 30·5 per cent. during the nine years. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular

police, 52 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 7. Land revenue, £6843. The *táluk* stands on the Mysore plateau, its general level being about 2500 feet above sea-level. It was acquired by the British on the partition which took place on the defeat and death of Tipú Sultán. Iron is worked in the region. Length of roads, 58 miles.

Pálmaner (*Pálamainer*).—Head-quarters of the Pálmaner *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 13° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 47′ 17″ E., 26 miles west of Chittúr; elevation above the sea, 2247 feet. Lies near the summit of the Máglí Pass. Population (1881) 1931, inhabiting 379 houses. A healthy station, with lower temperature by about 10° F. than the rest of the District. It was at one time used as a sanitarium by the Europeans of Madras, before the route to the Nílgiris became preferable. There is a busy trade, and in the town is a rum and arrack distillery. Dispensary; travellers' bungalow; schools and chapels. A beautiful glen, near the town, called the valley of Gangamma, is frequently visited by excursionists.

Palmyras Point.—Headland in Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 44′ 40″ N., long. 87° 2′ E. Landmark for vessels making for the Húglí from the south. Commander Taylor thus treats of it in his *Sailing Directory* (1874):—'Point Palmyras (called by the natives Máipárá, from the contiguous sandy island of this name) bears from FALSE POINT about north-east by north, distant 8 leagues; but from being abreast the latter in 14 or 15 fathoms, with it bearing west-north-west, the direct course is about north-east, and the distance 10 leagues to the outer edge of the bank off Point Palmyras in the same depth, with the point bearing west-north-west. Ships must be guided by the soundings in passing between them, as the flood sets towards, and the ebb from, the shore; from 14 to 15 fathoms are good depths to preserve with a fair wind. The land on Point Palmyras is low, and clothed with Palmyra-trees, having on each side of it, at a small distance, the mouth of a river; that on the south side is navigable by boats or small vessels. In rounding the bank off the Point, the trees on the land are just discernible in 15 fathoms water, distant about 4 leagues from the shore; ships, therefore, seldom see the Point in passing, unless the weather be clear, and the reef approached upon 14 or 15 fathoms, which ought never to be done in a large ship during thick weather, or in the night.

'A ship passing False Bay in daylight, with a westerly wind, may steer along at discretion in 10 or 12 fathoms; but if she gets into 9 fathoms, and sees Point Palmyras, she ought instantly to haul out into 12 or 14 fathoms in rounding the eastern limit of the bank. When blowing strong from south-west or south, a ship with daylight, after rounding the banks off Point Palmyras, may haul to the westward, and

anchor to the northward of the banks in 10 fathoms or rather less water, where she will be sheltered by them until the force of the wind is abated.'

Palnád.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1057 square miles. Population (1881) 125,799, namely, 62,365 males and 63,434 females, dwelling in 97 villages, consisting of 24,356 houses. Hindus number 110,182; Muhammadans, 9276; and Christians, 6341. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 101 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 19. Total revenue, £31,675. Forest tract in the extreme west of the District. 'Palnád' is said to mean 'milk land' from the light cream-coloured marble that abounds; another derivation makes Palnád mean 'the country of hamlets.' Taken over by the British in 1801. Dáchepalle, the head-quarters, has a population (1881) of 2268, dwelling in 497 houses. Post-office.

Palní.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Madura District, Madras Presidency. Area, 910 square miles. Population (1881) 171,515, namely, 82,959 males and 88,556 females, dwelling in 1 town and 125 villages, and occupying 34,457 houses. Hindus number 161,857; Muhammadans, 8191; and Christians, 1467. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 75 men. Land revenue, £24,001.

Palní (*Palani* or *Pulney*).—Town in Palní *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 27′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 33′ 1″ E., 34 miles west of Dindigal, and 69 miles north-west of Madura. Population (1871) 12,801, inhabiting 1782 houses; (1881) 12,974, inhabiting 2074 houses. In the latter year, Hindus numbered 11,395; Muhammadans, 1329; and Christians, 250. It is the head-quarters of the *táluk*, and gives its name to the neighbouring range of mountains (*vide infra*). Post-office.

Palní (*Palani*, *Pulney;* also called *Varahagiri*, *Vadagiri*, and *Kannandenan*).—Mountain range in Madura District, Madras Presidency; lying between 10° and 10° 15′ N. lat., and between 77° 20′ and 77° 55′ E. long. It extends in a north-easterly direction from the great mass of mountains known as the Western Gháts, with which it is connected by an isthmus or ridge of hills about 8 miles in width, being completely isolated on every other side. To the north are the Districts of Coimbatore and Trichinopoli; to the east Madura and Tanjore; to the south and west Tinnevelli and Travancore State. These mountains were surveyed more than fifty years ago by Captain Ward of the Surveyor-General's Department. He states their length, from east to west, to be 54 miles; average breadth, 15 miles; superficial area, 798½ square miles, including ANJINAD, now a dependency of Travancore. Captain Ward reckons the area of the Anjínád Hills at 231½ square miles, which leaves 567 square miles for the Palnís proper.

The native name of these mountains is Varahagiri or 'Pig-mountains.' The range, although nearly isolated, is part of the same system as the Anamaláis, and resembles the latter in so many respects that a large portion of the article on the ANAMALAIS may be read as referring equally to the Palnís. Anjínád may be taken as belonging to either group, and doubtless it is through the Palnís that the colonization of the western group will take place.

The Palnís are divided into two groups, the higher and lower, or the west and east ranges. The mean elevation of the former is about 7000 feet; of the latter, from 3000 to 4000 feet. Six *ghâts* or passes lead up to the lower range, all of a rough description. The lower range is generally known to the natives under the designation of Tandigudi and Virupachi. The higher range, which has plateaux of over 100 square miles, is said to reach an elevation of 8500 feet in one of its peaks. The rocks (of gneiss with quartz and felspar) are covered with heavy black soil, and traversed by numerous streams. The only made *ghát* up to the higher Palnís on the south side is that from Periakulam to Kodaikamal. Six other passes also lead to the higher range. The total population of the hills is, according to the Census of 1881, 18,633 souls; 5487 on the higher ranges, and 13,146 on the lower. The range is connected with the South Indian Railway at Amanáyakanúr (40 miles distant) by a practicable pass, and other roads connect it with Travancore on the west, and Madura on the east.

The wild animals met with on the Palnís are—tiger, leopard, wild cat, bear, bison, *sámbhar*, ibex, spotted deer, jungle sheep, wild hog, wild dog, jackal, mongoose, marten cat, and squirrel. Of birds—the large brown, the crested and the black eagle, a great variety of falcons and hawks, pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, spur-fowl, hill-quail, blackbird, thrush, etc. Elephants are now seldom seen.

The inhabitants of the hills are divided into the following tribes:—(1) Manadis, Kunuvars (mountaineers) or Koravars; (2) Karakat Vellálars; (3) Shettis or traders; (4) Paliyárs. The Koravars are supposed to be a caste of lowland cultivators, who came from the plains of Coimbatore some three or four centuries ago. They are the chief landed proprietors, possess large herds of cattle, and compared with the other tribes, seem to be in easy circumstances. At the marriage of a Koravar the whole tribe is present; and to avoid unnecessary expense, marriages are generally put off till two or more can be celebrated together, each family contributing towards the expenses. Incompatibility of temper is a sufficient ground for divorce. Polygamy prevails. The Western Koravars have the following peculiar custom:—When an estate is likely to descend to a female in default of male issue, she is forbidden to marry an adult, but goes through the ceremony of marriage with some young male child, or, in some cases, with a portion

of her father's dwelling-house, on the understanding that she shall be allowed to cohabit with any man of her caste whom she prefers, and her issue thus begotten inherits the property, which is retained in the woman's family. Numerous disputes originate in this custom, and evidence has been adduced in courts to show that a child of three or four years was the son or daughter of a boy of ten or twelve. The religion of the Koravars is nominally Sivaite, but they pay worship mainly to the mountain god Vallapom.

The Karakat Vellálars probably settled on the Palnís at a remote period. They are abstemious in their diet and are not averse to meat, but smoke and chew opium and tobacco. They anoint themselves with *ghí* instead of oil; wear the same dress as the Vellálars of the plains; abstain from the use of sandals; and invariably ornament their ears with rings. Though Bráhmans officiate as priests in the temples, yet the ceremonies of the Vellálars are performed by Pandaráms. They associate freely with the Koravars, and each can eat food dressed by the other. A man, if his wife proves barren, may with her consent marry a second, but in no other case is a plurality of wives allowed. The remarriage of widows is permitted.

The Shetti class, from their connection with the people of the plains, are considered aliens. Their comparative affluence has procured for them the office of mediators in all serious disputes among the other tribes, under the impression that being strangers to the hills they are likely to act impartially. They trade largely in hill produce, make advances on crops, etc., and import low country goods for sale or barter among the various tribes.

The Paliyár tribe is the most numerous on the Palnís, and they are regarded as the aborigines. The Paliyárs hold a degraded position, and are in some degree slaves to the Koravars. In spite of this, they possess considerable influence over the Koravars and other tribes as priests and physicians, for they alone are believed to understand the use of the various medicinal herbs, and alone can offer charms and incantations to the local deities. Their position has been ameliorated during recent years. As a body, they are mild and inoffensive. They are fond of hunting, killing tigers either by shooting or poisoning. Their religion is demon-worship, their marriage system monogamous, and their food anything. All the tribes of the Palnís are more or less addicted to indulging in a species of beer called *boja* made from *ragí* (Eleusine corocana).

The native cultivation is carried on in fields, cut into terraces, on the spurs and slopes of the hills, and laid out with great skill and labour. The hill people are well acquainted with the value of manure, carefully preserving dung and using it in a liquid form. In irrigation they are also skilled; constructing dams at the most convenient points, and

conveying the water to their fields by means of channels along the steep sides of the hills. Considerable herds of cattle are in the possession of the people, who use both oxen and buffaloes for agricultural purposes. But compared with the fine breed of Toda buffaloes in the Nílgiris, the Palní buffalo is an insignificant animal. The native products of the higher range of the Palnís are—garlic, rice, mustard, wheat, barley, *vendayam* (Trigonella Fœnum-græcum), *thennai* (Setaria italica), and a few potatoes. Garlic is the staple product and the chief article of export. On the lower range of the Palnís the native products are—turmeric, ginger, cardamoms, plantains, *vendayam*, castor-oil seed, rice, *samai* (Panicum miliare), *varágu* (Panicum miliaceum), *thennai*, *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum), and potatoes. The chief staple of export is a peculiar species of plantain. In the jungles are found the jack, mango, orange, lime, citron, pepper, wild cinnamon, and nutmeg.

On the lower Palnís coffee plantations have been formed. In 1883 the number of plantations was 2059, covering an area of 2289 acres, of which 1643 acres were under mature plants, 177 acres under immature plants, and 469 acres were taken up for planting; the approximate yield was 931,581 lbs., or an average of 567 lbs. per acre of mature plants. Several portions of the upper range are also well adapted for the growth of coffee.

Considerable traffic is carried on between the plains and the Palnís. The chief article of import is salt; cloth and other necessaries are also bartered for hill products, chiefly garlic. The whole of the traffic is in the hands of the Shettis and Labbays, who make large profits.

Since 1880, on the upper Palnís 76·6 square miles, on the lower Palnís 27·2 square miles, besides some important *sholas* or glades, have been constituted forest reserves. The timber trees include teak, blackwood, cedar, and *vengai* (Pterocarpus Marsupium). The forests on the slopes are of considerable value, containing much *vengai* and other valuable timber. Teak, blackwood, and sandal-wood are now scarce. Much of the best forest land has been exhausted by plantain cultivation. The shingle tree (Acrocarpus fraxinifolius) grows to a great size, several trees measuring upwards of 20 feet in girth at six feet from the base.

The climate is milder and of a more even temperature than that of Utákamand (Ootacamund). The rainfall is less than on the Nílgiris, but it is more equally distributed throughout the year. Mists and fogs are common. The lower range is feverish, but the higher portion is healthy. The sanitarium of KODAIKANAL enjoys a growing popularity. Around Kodaikanal the soil is very productive. Nearly all English trees and vegetables grow well.

Paloha.—Village in Gádawárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2838, namely, Hindus, 2740; Muhammadans, 54; Jains, 8; Kabírpanthí, 1; and non-Hindu aborigines, 35.

Paltá.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí, in lat. 22° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 24′ E., 2 miles above Barrackpur. In old days it was known as containing a powder magazine, and as the point where the Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta crosses the Húglí towards the north-west. It is now more celebrated for its works supplying Calcutta, 14 miles distant, with water, the purity of which is daily tested in Calcutta by the Government analyst. The works include a jetty for landing machinery, coals, and filtering media, while it protects the two large suction pipes, 30 inches in diameter, which here dip into the river, and through which the water is drawn by pumps. There is an aided vernacular school at Paltá.

Pálupáre.—Old fort in the Kiggatnád *táluk* of Coorg, on the Kire river. Once the residence of former rulers of Coorg named Kole Linga and Bome Krishna; and the scene of a battle at the end of the 17th century, in which Rájá Dodda Virappa completely defeated an invading army from Mysore under the command of Chikka Deva Wodeyar. Some ditches and small stone temples still mark the spot, which has now been converted into a coffee estate.

Palwal.—Central eastern *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; lying between 27° 55′ 30″ and 28° 14′ N. lat., and between 77° 14′ and 77° 35′ E. long., stretching along the right bank of the Jumna, and intersected by the Agra Canal and the trunk road from Delhi to Agra. The soil is generally fertile, consisting of loam and clay. The population consists principally of Ját cultivators. Area, 385 square miles, with 186 towns and villages, 13,781 houses, and 32,363 families. Total population (1881) 142,258, namely, males 75,233, and females 67,025. Average density of the population, 369 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 121,576; Muhammadans, 20,494; Jains, 172; Sikhs, 15; and Christian, 1. Of the 186 towns and villages, 100 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 53 from five hundred to a thousand; 31 from one to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand. The average area under cultivation for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 246⅓ square miles, or 157,709 acres, the area occupied by the chief crops being as follows:—*joár*, 41,366 acres; barley, 34,480 acres; gram, 32,730 acres; *bájra*, 29,749 acres; wheat, 17,650 acres. Of non-food crops, cotton is by far the most important, and was grown on an annual average of 23,541 acres for the above five years. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £27,890. The *tahsíldár* is the only local administrative officer, and presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles

(*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police force, 84 men; rural police (*chaukídárs*), 299.

Palwal.—Town and municipality in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Palwal *tahsíl.* Situated in lat. 28° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 22′ 15″ E., in the open plain between the river Jumna (Jamuná) and the Mewát hills, about 30 miles south-east of Gurgáon, on the trunk road from Delhi to Muttra. Palwal is a town dating from remote antiquity, and Hindu pandits identify it with the Apelava of the *Mahábhárata*, part of the Pándava kingdom of Indraprashtha. It is said to have been one of the cities restored by Vikramáditya, 57 B.C. The oldest part covers a high mound formed by the accumulated debris of many centuries; but of late years, houses and streets have sprung up on the plain at the foot of the mound. Bricks of unusual dimensions are often unearthed; and in digging a well a few years ago, remains of walls and houses were found fifty feet below the surface.

The modern town of Palwal is the second largest in Gurgáon District; but with the exception that the *bázár* forms a grain mart for the surrounding country, it is of no commercial importance, and has no manufactures. The population, too, has declined from 12,729 in 1868 to 10,635 in 1881. In the latter year, Hindus numbered 7107; Muhammadans, 3426; Jains, 97; and Sikhs, 5. Number of houses, 1293. Municipal income (1883-84), £743, or an average of 1s. 5d. per head. The principal streets are paved with stone or brick, and are well drained. An elegant domed tomb of red sandstone, just outside the town on the Muttra road, is said to have been built by a *fakír*, who levied an impost for this purpose of one slab on every cart-load of stone which passed from Agra to Delhi for the building of the fort of Salímgarh. The principal architectural feature of the town is a mosque of the early Muhammadan period. It has a flat roof, supported by square carved pillars and architraves of the style usually found in mosques built of material taken from Hindu temples. The town contains besides the usual Sub-divisional courts and offices, a post-office, rest-house, police station, school, and a large *sarái* or native inn.

Pambai.—River in Travancore State, Madras Presidency; a rapid mountain stream, with rocky bed and high banks in its upper course from the Western Gháts. In the plains it becomes a fine navigable river; and, with the waters of the Achínkoil, which join it about 15 miles from its mouth, it enters the great backwater at Alleppi. Its whole length is about 90 miles, for 50 of which it is navigable by large boats at most seasons.

Pámbam Passage (*Paumben; pambu*, 'a snake,' said to be named from the character of the channel).—The artificial channel known as the 'Pass,' which affords the means of communication for sea-going ships between the continent of India and the island of Ceylon. It

lies between the mainland of Madura District and the little island of RAMESWARAM, which is the first link in the chain of islets and rocks forming Adam's Bridge. Geological evidence tends to show that in early days this gap was bridged by a continuous isthmus; and the ancient records preserved in the temple of Rámeswaram relate that in the year 1480 a violent storm breached the isthmus, and that, despite efforts to restore the connection, subsequent storms rendered the breach permanent. The Passage was formerly impracticable for ships, being obstructed by two parallel ridges of rock about 140 yards apart. The more northerly of these ridges was the higher of the two, and used to appear above water at high tide. The space between was occupied by a confused mass of rocks, lying for the most part parallel to the ridges, and in horizontal strata. The formation is sandstone.

The first proposal to deepen this channel for traffic was made by a certain Colonel Manuel Martinez, who brought the matter under the attention of Mr. Lushington, Collector of the Southern Provinces of India, and afterwards Governor of Fort St. George. Nothing, however, was done until 1822, when Colonel de Haviland recommended the institution of a regular survey, which was entrusted to Ensign (afterwards Sir Arthur) Cotton, whose name is so honourably associated with all the great engineering projects in Southern India. Cotton's opinion was favourable; but other matters diverted the attention of Government until 1828, when Major Sim was instructed to undertake experiments in blasting and removing the rocks. His report will be found at length in the *Journal* of the Royal Geographical Society (vol. iv.). The first scientific marine survey of the channel was conducted in 1837 by Lieutenants Powell and Ethersey of the Indian Navy, assisted by Lieutenants Grieve and Christopher, with Felix Jones as their draughtsman. The charts made on this occasion still remain the standard authority. Finally, in 1877, a connection was established by Mr. Chapman and Lieutenant Coomb, R.N., between the marine and land surveys; and a series of valuable observations were made on the tides, etc., which have been published in the form of a Hydrographical Notice.

The operations for deepening and widening the channel were commenced in 1838, and have ever since been continued. Convict labour has been employed to a considerable extent, under the supervision of the Madras Sappers and Miners. By 1844 the channel had been deepened to 8 feet of water at low spring tides, and two war steamers were able to pass through. The total expenditure up to that date was £15,595. In 1854, Lieutenant-Colonel Cotton reported that the uniform depth was 10½ feet; that the passage was navigable for keeled vessels of 200 tons; that the tonnage passing through in 1853 was nearly 160,000 tons, as compared with 17,000 tons in 1822; and that

the total expenditure had been about £32,500. Colonel Cotton pressed upon Government that the channel should be extended on such a scale as to be practicable for ocean steamers; but this is forbidden by the shallow character of the neighbouring coast. Blasting and dredging operations have since been carried on regularly up to the present date. The main channel through the larger reefs of rocks has now been carried down to a minimum depth of 14 feet. Its length is 4232 feet, and its width 80 feet. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that, in 1875-76, the total number of vessels that passed through, including several steamers, was 2657, aggregating 269,544 tons; the Government share of pilotage fees was £2313. There is a second channel to the south of the main channel, called Kílkarai Passage, which is 2100 feet long and 150 feet wide, and has been dredged through a sandbank to the depth of 12 feet. In 1875-76 this was used by 805 vessels, paying £87 in dues. Later navigation statistics are not available.

The traffic passing by the Pámbam Passage is mostly of a coasting nature, between Ceylon and the mainland; though there is some emigration by this route to British Burma and the Straits. If ocean steamers are ever destined to run inside the island of Ceylon, it is stated that the best route will be a ship canal across either the peninsula of RAMNAD or the island of Rámeswaram.

Pámbam.—Town, deriving its name from the passage between the island of Rámeswaram and the mainland of India, in Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 17′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 15′ 31″ E., at the western extremity of the island commanding the channel. Population in 1871 (with adjoining villages) 9407, inhabiting 1986 houses. In 1881 the population of Pámbam village was 4833, and the number of houses 727. The lighthouse, rising 97 feet above high-water mark, contains a fixed catadioptric light which guides vessels making the channel from the Gulf of Manar. The channel is open to vessels of 500 tons burden. The population, chiefly Labbays, are employed as pilots, divers, and in other seafaring pursuits. Half the year, the Ceylon Government have their immigration depôt fixed here; and this, with the constant influx of pilgrims from every part of India, and the grain trade, gives the port an appearance of great activity. The average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1883-84 was £55,921—imports £23,857, and exports £32,064. In 1883-84 the value of trade was £48,625—imports £19,802, and exports £28,823. At one time the place was of importance on account of its pearl fishery, and at an early period it was used as a refuge for the Rámnád chiefs, in whose *zamíndári* it is still included. They had a palace in RAMESWARAM.

Pámidi.—Town in Gooty (Gúti) *táluk*, Anantápur District, Madras

Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 56′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 39′ 15″ E., on the Penner river, 14 miles south of Gooty (Gúti). Population (1881) 5260, residing in 1025 houses. Hindus number 4290, and Muhammadans 970. Pámidi is an unhealthy place, occupied chiefly by a community of weavers. Post-office.

Pámpur.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India, lying in lat. 34° N., long. 75° 3′ E., on the north bank of the river Jehlam (Jhelum), about 5 miles south-west of Srínagar, in the midst of a fertile tract, surrounded by orchards and gardens. A bridge of several arches spans the river; *bázár;* two Muhammadan shrines. The neighbouring country is chiefly devoted to growth of saffron, considered finer than that of Hindustán.

Pánábáras.—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship in Warorá *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated 80 miles east-north-east of Wairágarh, within a dense belt of jungle and forest, comprising an area of 344 square miles, with 142 villages and 4058 houses. Total population (1881) 12,374; average density of population, 36 persons per square mile. The population has considerably increased of late years, owing to the opening out of Chhatísgarh, of which plateau the Pánábáras *zamíndárí* forms a part. Wild arrowroot (*tíkhúr*) grows abundantly in the valleys; and the hills yield much wax and honey. The climate is moist and cool even in the summer months. Pánábáras includes the dependent chiefship of Aundhí. The ruler ranks first of the Wairágarh chiefs.

Pánábáras. — Teak forest in the south-east corner of Pánábáras chiefship in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Area, 25 square miles. The boundary has been cleared and marked out by the Forest Department. The population consists of Gonds, but *dahya* or nomad cultivation seems unknown to them. Some of the trees contain as much as 200 cubic feet of timber. This forest supplied the teak used in the Nágpur palace, the Kámthi (Kamptee) barracks, and the Residency at Sítábaldí.

Pánágur.—Town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) *tahsíl*, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 17′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E., on the northern road 9 miles from Jabalpur city. Population (1881) 4915, chiefly agricultural. Hindus number 3491; Kabírpanthís, 63; Satnámís, 36; Jaihs, 417; Muhammadans, 589; and non-Hindu aborigines, 319. Iron, from the neighbouring mines, forms the chief article of trade. Sugar-cane is the principal agricultural product.

Panáhat (or *Bah-Panáhat*).—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces. It is nearly surrounded on all sides by large rivers, and forms almost an island, cut off from the main District. For about five or six miles on the east, the *tahsíl* is bounded by Etáwah District, and in the extreme west for about nine miles by

Dholpur State. Elsewhere it is enclosed by water—on the south by the Chambal, flowing in long and sweeping curves from west to east, which separates it from Gwalior territory; and on the north by the Utanghan and the Jumna, which form a continuous boundary line, separating the *tahsíl* from Mainpuri and Etáwah Districts. In shape, Panáhat is a long irregular strip of land, narrow at either end, but widening out toward the centre. Its extreme length from east to west is about 42 miles, and its extreme breadth about 14 miles, with an average breadth of eight or nine miles.

Total area of the *tahsíl*, 341 square miles, of which 176 square miles are cultivated. A considerable portion of the land is held revenue-free, and only 283 square miles are assessed for Government revenue; of which 161 square miles are cultivated, 37 square miles cultivable, and 85 square miles barren and waste. Total population (1872) 142,155; (1881) 120,529, namely, males 63,524, and females 57,005, thus showing a decrease of population in 13 years of 21,626, or 15·2 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 115,154; Muhammadans, 3491; Jains, 1880; and Christians, 4. Of 204 inhabited villages, 124 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 52 between five hundred and a thousand; 27 between one and five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand. Government land revenue (1881–82), £20,867, or including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £23,698. Total rental, including rates and cesses, paid by the cultivators, £45,243.

Panáhat *tahsíl* is badly off for communications, and it is only in the direction of Dholpur that there is any exit for the *tahsíl*, except by the passage of an unbridged river. Four second-class roads afford means of internal communication. There is but little trade, and there are no merchants. Cattle-breeding is largely carried on by the landholders, and the so-called Panáhat breed has more than a local reputation. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court; number of police circles, 4; strength of regular police, 56 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 348.

Panáhat.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and the head-quarters of the *tahsíl* till 1882, when it was removed to the village of Bah. Situated in lat. 26° 52′ 39″ N., and long. 78° 24′ 58″ E., about a mile from the left bank of the Chambal, 33 miles south-east of Agra city. Population (1881) 5697, namely, Hindus, 5005; Muhammadans, 653; and Jains, 39. The town contains a police station, post-office, school, and three fine Hindu temples. The old fort commands an extensive view, and is a station of the great Trigonometrical Survey.

Pánápur (or *Bhagwán*).—Agricultural town in Sáran District, Bengal. Population (1881) 6425.

Panár.—River in Purniah District, Bengal; formed by the junction of a number of hill streams rising in Nepál. Its course is first south-

east through Sultánpur and Háveli Purniah *parganás*, then southwards through Kadbá and Hatandá to the Ganges. It is navigable by boats of 250 *maunds*, or about 9 tons burden, in the neighbourhood of Purniah, and above that for boats of 100 *maunds* (about 3½ tons), almost to the Nepál frontier. The current in the upper reaches is very rapid.

Panchamnagar.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 3′ N., and long. 79° 13′ E., 24 miles north-west of Damoh town. Population (1881) below 2000; but the place appears to have been once much larger. The paper produced at Panchamnagar bears a high repute. Police station and village school.

Panchánnagrám (*'The Fifty-five Villages'*).—The name given to the suburbs of Calcutta, containing an area, according to the latest Revenue Survey Report, of 14,829 acres, or 23·17 square miles. Lat. 22° 30′ to 22° 41′ N., long. 88° 19′ to 88° 31′ E. Attached to the treaty made in 1757 with Mír Jafar, is a list of the villages then granted to the Company free of rent. This was the origin of the *zamíndárí* of Dihi Panchánnagrám, of which the part enclosed within the limits of the old Maráthá Ditch forms the town of Calcutta. The remainder, which is under the Collector of the Twenty-four Parganás, yields an annual revenue of £8120, derived from 22,500 separate holdings. The lands lie all round the south-east and south of Calcutta, beginning from the Government telegraph-yard on Tolly's *nalá*, and running up to Dum-Dum on the east. On the north the *zamíndárí* is bounded by the Government estate of Barahanagar (Burranagore).

Pánchavra.—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village. Lies 2 miles south of Songarh station, on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway, and 12 miles north-east of Pálitána. Area, 78 square miles. Population (1881) 504.

Pánchet (*Pánchkot*).—Large *zamíndárí* or landed estate in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; occupying an area of 1,209,795 acres, or 1890 square miles, being five-thirteenths of the total area (4914 square miles) of the District. It contains 19 of the 45 *parganás* into which Mánbhúm is divided, and pays to Government a revenue of £5579. The Rájás of Pánchet claim that they came into Mánbhúm as conquering Rájputs from North-Western India; but it is more probable that they are of aboriginal descent, and it is certain that their claims to supremacy were only nominally recognised by the other chiefs of the District. The earliest mention of the estate by the Muhammadan historians is given by Mr. Blochmann in *The Journal of the Asiatic Society* for 1871, as follows:—'Of Pánchet, I have only found a short remark in the voluminous *Pádisháh-námah* (B. i. p. 317): "Bir Náráyan, *zamíndár* of Pánchet, a country attached to Subah Behar, was under Sháh Jahán a commander of 300 horse, and died in the 6th year

(A.H. 1042–43, A.D. 1632–33)." Short as the remark is, it implies that Pánchet paid a fixed *peshkash* to Delhi.'

Mr. J. Grant, in his Report to Lord Cornwallis in the last century on the Revenues of Bengal (Fifth Report, Madras edition, 1866, p. 464), describes the '*Zamíndárí* Ráj of Pánchet' as a jungle territory of 2779 square miles, situated within the portion of country ceded to the Company, and differing little in its financial history or internal management from the adjoining District of Bishnupur. From the year 1135 to 1150 of the Bengal era (1728–43 A.D.), Rájá Garur Náráyan was subject to an annual tribute of Rs. 18,203 for the Fiscal Division of Pánchet and the *kismat* of Shergarh. In 1743, an additional charge of Rs. 3323 was levied from the estate in the form of the *ábwáb chauth Maráthá* imposed by Alí Vardi Khán. In 1170 (1763), the *sarf-i-sikká*, or impost levied by Kásim Alí to cover losses on the exchange of coins, swelled the net assessment to Rs. 23,544. Muhammad Rezá Khán in 1766 raised the demand to Rs. 30,000, but only Rs. 5969 was in fact collected during that year. In 1771, a *zor talab* or compulsory exaction of Rs. 144,954, including a *saranjámi* or deduction for collecting charges of Rs. 17,302, was established, and the demand enforced by military authority. In the 'gross medium Settlement' of 1777 with Rájá Raghunáth Náráyan, 'the actual payment of Pánchet, with the recent territorial annexation of Jhálidá,' is stated at Rs. 69,027. Yet the native surveyors had discovered sources of revenue amounting in all to Rs. 154,423, including *palátiká* or revenue chargeable on lands that had been deserted by the cultivators. Finally, in 1783, the total assessment of the same territory amounted to Rs. 76,532, charged with a deduction of about Rs. 57,000 for collection expenses. This, Mr. Grant points out, gives little more to the sovereign than the original tribute, and 'leaves a recoverable defalcation exceeding 1 *lákh* of rupees, if we take the *zor talab* or compulsory exaction of 1771 as the proper standard.'

In the Permanent Settlement made with the Rájá of Pánchet, the Government revenue was fixed by assessing in detail every village within the *zamíndárí*, with the exception of the rent-free grants. A list of the latter was submitted to Government by the Rájá as early as 1771, and the rent-paying villages were returned in a similar manner at the time of the Decennial Settlement. The large numbers of rent-free grants is mainly due to the desire to induce Bráhmans to settle on the estate.

Pánchet.—Hill in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 37′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 49′ 15″ E., half-way between Raghunáthpur and the confluence of the Barákhar and Dámodar rivers. It is 3 miles long, stretching from north to south in a long rounded ridge, at least 2000 feet above sea-level. The hill is covered with dense jungle, and is inaccessible to beasts of burden.

Pánchipenta (*Páchipéta*).—Hill pass or *ghát* in Sálúr *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, by which the road crosses from Sálúr to Jaipur. The crest of the pass is about 3000 feet above sea-level. Lat. 18° 28′ N., long. 83° 12′ E. The village of Pánchipenta—containing in 1881, 879 houses and 4385 inhabitants—is the capital of an ancient *zamíndárí*, a feudatory of Jaipur (Jeypore), and 'Count of the Southern Marches.' The Maráthá Horse of Jáfar Alí descended into the Chicacole Circar in 1754, by the treachery of the Pánchipenta *zamíndár*, who was, in consequence, imprisoned. One of the family fell at the battle of Padmanábham in 1794. The estate pays a fixed revenue of £2696.

Pánchkot.—Large *zamíndárí* and hill in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. —*See* PANCHET.

Panch Mahále (or *Five Sub-divisions*).—British District on the eastern frontier of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; lying between 22° 30′ and 23° 10′ N. lat., and between 73° 35′ and 74° 10′ E. long. Area, 1613 square miles. Population in 1881, 255,479 persons, or 158 per square mile. For purposes of administration, the territory is distributed over 3 Sub-divisions, which form two main groups, divided by the lands of Bária in Rewá Kántha. The Sub-divisions are Godhrá, Kálol, and Dohad. Hálol is a petty Sub-division under Kálol. The south-west portion is bounded on the north by the States of Lunáwára, Sunth, and Sanjeli; on the east by Bária State; on the south by Baroda State; and on the west by Baroda State, the Pándu Mehwás and the river Mahi separating it from Kaira District. The north-east portion is bounded on the north by the States of Chilkári and Kushálgarh; on the east by Western Málwá and the river Anás; on the south by Western Málwá; and on the west by the States of Sunth, Sanjeli, and Bária. On the transfer of the Panch Mahále from Sindhia in 1861, they were, in the first instance, placed under the Political Agent for Rewá Kántha. In 1864 the revenue was made payable through Kaira. In 1877 the Panch Mahále were erected into a distinct Collectorate. For purposes of general administration, they form a non-regulation District, under the charge of an officer styled the Collector and Agent to the Governor of Bombay, Panch Mahále. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at GODHRA.

Physical Aspects.—The two sections of the District differ considerably in appearance—that to the south-west (except a hilly portion covered with dense forest, comprising the Páwagarh Hill) is a level tract of rich soil; while the northern portion, although it contains some fertile valleys, is generally rugged, undulating, and barren, with but little cultivation. The forests lie mainly in the centre of the District. In some of the western villages, the careful tillage, the well-grown trees, the deep sandy lanes bordered by high hedges

overgown with tangled creepers, recall the wealthy tracts of Kaira. In other parts are wide stretches of woodland and forest, or bare and fantastic ridges of hills without a sign of tillage or population. In the north-east, the wide expanse of yellow corn, and the fields of many-coloured poppies, tell of the immediate neighbourhood of opium-growing Málwá.

Though there are many streams and watercourses, the District has no permanent river, except the Máhi, which touches on the north-west. The Anás and Pánam dry up in the hot weather. From wells and pools, however, the District is sufficiently supplied with water. There are altogether (1881) 2260 wells, 127 water-lifts, and 753 ponds in the Panch Mah
áls. Several of these ponds cover an extent of over 100 acres. The one near Godhra, called the Orwáda lake, is said never to have been dry, and to have a pillar in the centre only visible in times of extreme drought.

Páwágarh, the 'quarter hill,' in the south-west corner of the District, is the only mountain of any size. It rises 2500 feet from the plain in almost sheer precipices, and has a rugged and picturesque outline on the summit, which is strongly fortified, and was formerly a place of much consequence. Mention is made of it so far back as 1022, when the Tuárs were lords of the neighbouring country and of Páwá Fort. The Chauháns next held the fort, and a Muhammadan commander attacked it in 1418 without success. Sindhia took it between 1761 and 1770, and held it until 1803, when it was breached and seized by Colonel Woodington. In 1804, Páwágarh was handed back to Sindhia, with whom it remained until 1853, when the English took over the management of the District. Páwágarh is now a sanitarium for the Europeans in Panch Mahráls District and Baroda.

The District contains limestone, sandstone, trap, quartz, basalt, granite, and other varieties of stone, well fitted for building purposes. The hill of Páwágarh is said to represent a mass of trap rock, which at one time reached to the Rájpipla Hills. There are hot springs 10 miles west of Godhra.

When, in 1861, the District was taken over by the British Government, big game of all kinds, and many varieties of deer, abounded. Wild elephants were common two centuries ago, and twenty years back, tigers were numerous. As, however, large numbers of big game have been shot annually for many years, the supply is now much reduced. Only within the last few years has any attempt been made to introduce a system of conservancy into the management of the Panch Mahál forests. So severely have they suffered from previous want of care, that, in spite of their great extent, little timber of any size is now to be found. In 1881–82, the forest revenue amounted to £4426. Besides timber-trees, the most important varieties are — the *mahuá*

(Bassia latifolia), from whose flowers a favourite intoxicating drink is prepared; the *khákhra* (Butea frondosa), whose flat, strong leaves are used as plates by Hindus; the mango, and the *rayen* (Mimusops indica).

History.—The history of the Panch Mahals is the history of the city of Chámpáner, now a heap of ruins. During the Hindu period (350 to 1300 A.D.) Chámpáner was a stronghold of the Anhilwára kings and of the Tuár dynasty. The Chauháns followed the Tuárs, and retained possession of the place and surrounding country until the appearance of the Muhammadans in 1484. From this time until 1536, Chámpáner remained the political capital of Gujarát. In 1535, Humáyún pillaged the city, and in the following year the court and capital was transferred to Ahmadábád. The Maráthás under Sindhia overran and annexed the District in the middle of the 18th century; and it was not until 1853 that the British took over the administration. In 1861, Sindhia exchanged Panch Mahals for lands near Jhansi. Since 1853, the peace has been twice disturbed—once in 1858 by an inroad of mutineers, and a second time in 1868, when the Náikdás (said to be the Muhammadan descendants of the population of Chámpáner) rose, but were dispersed by Captain Macleod and a detachment of Poona Horse. The chief criminal, Joria, was hanged.

Population.—In 1872, the Panch Mahals District had a population of 240,743 persons. The Census Returns of 1881 disclosed a total population of 255,479, residing in 3 towns and 672 villages, and occupying 50,970 houses. Density of the population, 158 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 37; persons per village, 377; persons per house, 5·0. Classified according to sex, there were 131,162 males and 124,317 females; proportion of males, 51·3 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, males 57,041, and females 53,187; total children, 110,228, or 43·15 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 74,121, and females 71,130; total adults, 145,251, or 56·85 per cent. Of the total population, 159,624 were Hindus, 16,060 Musalmáns, 1867 Jains, 77,840 non-Hindu aborigines, 30 Pársís, 7 Jews, 44 Christians, and 'others,' 7.

Among the Hindus were included the following castes:—Bráhmans, 6086; Rájputs, 5595; Chamárs, 2177; Darjís (tailors), 780; Nápits (barbers), 1858; Kunbís, 5934; Kolís, 81,737; Kumbárs (potters), 1868; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 1811; Mhárs, 5023; Málís (gardeners), 918; Banjarás (carriers), 1580; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 732; Sutárs (carpenters), 907; Telís (oilmen), 746; other Hindus, 41,872.

The bulk of the aboriginal tribes are Bhíls, who number 69,590, or 27·2 per cent. of the total population; 'other' aborigines numbered 8250, nearly all Náikdás. Until within the last few years the aboriginal tribes were turbulent, and much addicted to thieving and drunkenness; to check these tendencies the Panch Mahals are provided, in

addition to the unarmed police, with a regiment called the Gujarát Bhíl Corps, about 530 strong. The Bhíls now mostly cultivate the same field continuously, although many still practise nomadic tillage on patches of forest land, which they abandon after a year or two. Formerly, as robbers they never entered a town except to plunder, but now they crowd the streets, selling grain, wood, and grass. The Náikdás are found only in the wildest parts, and are employed as labourers and wood-cutters; a few practise nomadic tillage. The Bhíls and Náikdás do not live in villages; each family has a separate dwelling; and they often move from place to place.

The Muhammadan population by race consists of—Shaikhs, 2601; Patháns, 1765; Sayyids, 332; Sindis, 65; and 'other' tribes, 11,297. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís 12,597, and Shiás 3463. Of the Musalmán population, 5283 belong to a special class, known as Ghánchis. These men, as their name implies, are generally oil-pressers; but in former times they were chiefly employed as carriers of merchandise between Málwá and the coast. The changes that have followed the introduction of railways have in some respects reduced the prosperity of these professional carriers, and the Ghánchis complain that their trade is gone. Several of them have taken to cultivation; and they are, as a class, so intelligent, pushing, and thrifty, that there seems little reason to doubt that before long they will be able to take advantage of some opening for profitable employment.

In respect of occupation, the Census distributes the adult population into six main groups as follows:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 3211; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 1414; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 1469; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 60,097; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 9486; and (6) indefinite and unproductive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 55,485.

Of the 675 towns and villages in the Panch Mahális District, 322 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 230 from two to five hundred; 89 from five hundred to one thousand; 22 from one to two thousand; 7 from two to three thousand; 2 from three to five thousand; 1 from five to ten thousand; and 2 from ten to fifteen thousand. The three principal towns in the District are GODHRA, population (1881) 13,342; DOHAD, 12,394; and JHALOD, 5579.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported 185,019 persons in the Panch Mahális in 1881, or 72·42 per cent. of the entire population. Of these, 112,194 were 'workers,' giving an average of 7·5 acres of cultivable and cultivated land to each. Of the total District area of 1613 square

miles, 1271 square miles are assessed to Government revenue. Of these, 673 square miles are under cultivation, and 598 square miles are cultivable. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £33,611, or an average of 1s. 2½d. per cultivated acre.

The total area of cultivable land in 1883 was 482,868 acres, of which 228,623 acres, or 47·5 per cent., were taken up for cultivation. Of this area, 27,484 acres were fallow or under grass; of the remaining 201,139 acres (46,108 of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupied 171,093 acres; pulses, 46,893; oil-seeds, 25,134; fibres, 2765; and miscellaneous, 1362 acres. The area under wheat in 1883 was 16,667 acres; rice, 36,865; maize, 49,679; *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 30,606; gram, 30,000; tobacco, 227; sugar-cane, 560; sesamum, 23,999; cotton, 286.

The prices current in the District in 1882–83 were for 1 rupee (2s.) as follows—wheat, 22 lbs.; best rice, 26 lbs.; *bájra* (the staple food of the cultivators), 35 lbs.; common rice, 31 lbs. Salt costs about ¾d. per lb. The agricultural stock in 1882–83 included 207,106 horned cattle, 945 horses, 1068 mares, 465 foals, 1270 donkeys, 25,837 sheep and goats; 34,470 ploughs, and 8234 carts. The cost of labour was 10½d. a day for skilled workmen, and 3¾d. for unskilled workmen. The hire per day of a cart was 2s. 6d. There is not a constant demand for labour all the year round, but only in harvest time. Women work in the fields as hard as men.

Considerable tracts of arable land in the Panch Mahάls have not yet been brought under the plough. The opening of the Godhra branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway will, it is hoped, bring both buyers of land and cultivators. During the year 1876–77 colonization was attempted by the settling near the foot of Páwágarh Hill of about 1867 families of the Talávia tribe, from the overcrowded tracts of Kaira, Broach, and Baroda; but it proved a failure, the settlers nearly all dying out and some absconding, causing a loss to Government of about Rs. 86,000 (£8600), the total of sums advanced from time to time with a view of helping the settlers. In 1881, an attempt was made by a Pársí to reclaim land. He at first started on 1000 acres, adding to it in 1884 another 2500 acres in Hálol *táluk*, 7 miles from Bhodarpur, the terminus of the Baroda State Railway. In 1885 he had 1500 acres under cultivation, growing cotton and wheat (never before cultivated in the District), as well as grain with much success. There are now (1885) on the estate 450 families, 75 ploughs, 500 cattle, 125 houses.

Trade, etc.—The through trade of the District was once very flourishing, especially after the reduction of transit duties; but the opening of the Málwá line of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway into Central India

from Khandwa has interfered with this traffic, and tobacco and salt from Gujarát, which used to pass over the road leading from Gujarát to Málwá and Mewár, are now sent by rail. The opium traffic from Málwá has also been stopped under excise prohibition. The chief exports to Gujarát are grain, *mahuá* flowers, timber, and oil-seeds; the chief imports from Gujarát are tobacco, salt, cocoa-nuts, hardware, and piece-goods. Timber is the chief article of export, and most of it comes from the Bária and Sangli forests. The only industry of any importance in the District is the making of lac bracelets at Dohád. Dohád also is looked upon as a granary in time of necessity for Málwá, Mewár, and Gujarát; and it is anticipated that here a large grain trade will spring up. The recent opening of the railway to Godhra, the chief town of the District, has given a new impulse to the trade of the Panch Mahál.

Administration.—When the British took over the management of the Panch Mahál in 1853, the greatest disorder prevailed, as the country had for many years been in the hands of revenue contractors, who were not interfered with so long as the revenue was paid. Some of the Rájputs and village head-men had been forced into outlawry, and the contractors in retaliation had collected mercenaries, with whom they harried the villages. The British has respected the position of the large landlords, *tálukdárs*, and *thákurs*, who are chiefly Kolís, and own estates varying from one to forty or fifty villages, and levy the same rent now as at the commencement of the British rule. The alienations of former governments have been settled on an equitable basis. A survey settlement has been effected in part of the District, and is in progress in the remainder. Special rates have been offered to colonists to take up the cultivable waste lands in Godhra Sub-division, namely, rent-free for five years, and then at 4 *annas* (6d.) an acre, and gradually rising until the rate equals the survey rate.

The District for purposes of administration contains three Sub-divisions, GODHRA, DOHAD, and KALOL. The revenue raised in 1881–82, from all sources, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £45,232, or, on a population of 255,479, an incidence per head of 3s. 6d. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £27,057; other important items are stamps and forests. The local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total sum of £4793 in 1881–82. The two municipalities, Godhra and Dohád, contain a municipal population (1882–83) of 22,159; municipal income, £1086; incidence of municipal taxation per head, 11¾d. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector, with 2 Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 3 courts; 11 officers administer criminal justice. On an

average, each village is 10 miles distant from the nearest court. The total strength of the regular police consisted in 1882–83 of 796 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 331 of the population, or to every 2·09 square miles of area. The total cost was £11,638, equal to £7, 4s. 3d. per square mile of area, and nearly 1s. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 970 in 1876, and 360 in 1882–83. There is one jail in the District; number of convicts (1881), 238.

Education has spread rapidly of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 7 schools, attended by 327 pupils. In 1881–82 there were 67 schools, attended by 4329 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 13 inhabited villages. There are 2 libraries.

Medical Aspects.—The cold season lasts from November to February; the hot from March to the middle of June; and the rainy from the middle of June until the end of September. October is temperate and windy. Average rainfall at Godhra for 14 years ending 1881, 42·4 inches; the fall at Dohád in the east of the District is somewhat less. The prevailing diseases are fever, eye diseases, and cutaneous affections. In 1883, the number of deaths from cholera was 28; from fevers, 3974; from smallpox, 31. In 1883, the number of in-door patients treated in the two dispensaries of the District was 869; out-door patients, 14,663. The number of persons vaccinated in the same year was 9484. Income of the dispensaries (1883), £1537; expenditure, £1356. Vital statistics showed a death-rate in 1876 of 20·69 per thousand. In 1883, the birth-rate per thousand was 26; and the death-rate, 16·8. [For further information regarding the Panch Mahāls, see vol. iii. of the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and edited by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S. See also the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports for the Bombay Presidency.]

Pánchpárá. — River in Balasor District, Bengal. Formed by a number of small streams, the principal being the Báns, Jamirá, and Bhairingi, which unite, bifurcate, and re-unite in the wildest confusion, until they finally enter the sea in lat. 21° 31′ N., and long. 87° 9′ 30″ E. The tide runs up only 10 miles; and although the interlacings constantly spread out into shallow swamps, yet one of them, the Bans, is deep enough to be navigated by boats of 4 tons burden all the year round.

Pánchpukuria.—Village in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Gumti. Large river-borne trade in rice, jute, hides, etc.

Pandái.—River in Champáran District, Bengal; rising on the north of the Sumeswar Hills, and entering the Rámnagar Ráj through a pass between the Sumeswar and Churiá Ghátiá ranges, at the Nepál outpost of Thorí. For 6 miles below this pass its bed is stony, but the Pandái

soon becomes an ordinary channel, with high clay banks. The flood discharge is considerable, the breadth of the stream being 100 yards, with a full depth of 8 or 9 feet. The course of the river is at first westerly; but afterwards it curves to the south-east, and joins the Dhoram about 2 miles east of Singárpur.

Pandariá.—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship in Mungelí *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces, comprising 332 villages. Area, 486 square miles, half of which is covered with hills, while the remainder is a cultivated plain, consisting for the most part of first-class black soil, largely devoted to cotton. Population (1881) 71,110, namely, males 35,492, and females 35,618, residing in 18,965 houses; average density of the population, 146 persons per square mile. Besides cotton, wheat, gram, and other *rabí* crops are grown, as well as much sugar-cane. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and the chiefship was conferred on his ancestor three centuries ago by the Gond Rájá of Garhá Mandlá.

Pandariá.—Village in Mungelí *tahsíl*, Bilάspur District, Central Provinces, and the residence of the *zamíndár* of Pandariá estate. Lat. 22° 14′ N., long. 81° 27′ E. Population (1881) 4317, namely, Hindus, 3682; Kabírpanthís, 267; Satnámís, 65; Muhammadans, 270; and non-Hindu aborigines, 33. The village contains a well-attended dispensary.

Pandarkaura.—Town in Wún District, Berar. Lat. 20° 1′ N., long. 78° 35′ E. Population not returned in Census Report. Scene of the defeat of the Peshwá Báji Ráo by the combined forces of Colonels Scott and Adams, on the 2nd April 1818. By this defeat the Peshwá's movement on Nágpur to aid Apá Sáhib was finally checked. The town is now the head-quarters of the newly formed *táluk* of Kehlápur, and contains a *tahsíldár's* court, police station, dispensary, school, and post-office.

Pándá Tarái.—Village in Mungelí *tahsíl*, in Bilάspur District, Central Provinces, and within the Pandariá *zamíndárí*; situated in lat. 22° 12′ N., and long. 81° 22′ E., near the foot of the Máikal hills, 50 miles west of Bilάspur town. Population (1881) 2421, namely, Hindus, 2070; Kabírpanthís, 143; Satnámís, 4; Muhammadans, 69; and non-Hindu aborigines, 135. The village does a good trade in grain with carriers from Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The weekly market is the largest in the PANDARIA chiefship.

Pandaul.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated 7 miles south of Madhubaní, on the Darbhangah road. The site of a factory of the same name, which once had the largest indigo cultivation in Tirhút. There are also the remains of a sugar factory by the side of a large tank ascribed to Rájá Seo Singh, one of the ancient princes of the country.

Pan-daw.—Town in the Ye-gyí township of Bassein District, Pegu

Division, Lower Burma. Lat. 17° 19′ 30″ N., long. 95° 10′ E. Head-quarters of the united townships of Ye-gyi, Bo-daw, and Mye-nu. Contains a court-house, police station, and market. Population (1877) 3982; revenue, £380: and (1881) population, 2630; revenue, £391. A rapidly rising place, sometimes called Ye-gyí Pan-daw. It was here that the Talaing army made its last stand against the Burmese conqueror Alaungpaya.

Pan-daw.—Creek in Bassein District, Lower Burma.—*See* YE-GYI.

Pandháná.—Village in Khandwá *tahsíl*, Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 42′ N., and long. 76° 16′ E., 10 miles south-west of Khandwá town. Population (1881) 2788, namely, Hindus, 2318; Muhammadans, 452; Kabírpanthís, 8; and Jains, 10. At the market held every Tuesday, a brisk trade is done in grain, forest produce, and cotton goods.

Pandharpur.—Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in the centre of the District between lat. 17° 29′ and 17° 56′ N., and long. 75° 11′ and 75° 44′ E. Area, 470 square miles, containing 2 towns and 83 villages. Population (1872) 79,314; (1881) 72,212, namely, 35,843 males and 36,369 females. Hindus number 68,187; Muhammadans, 2864; and 'others,' 1161. Pandharpur is an open waving plain, almost bare of trees. The chief rivers are the Bhíma and the Mán. Along the river banks the soil is mostly deep black, and to the east of the Bhíma it is specially fine. On the high-lying land the soil is shallow, black and gray, gravelly or *barad*. The climate is dry; rainfall scanty and uncertain. At Pandharpur town, in the centre of the Sub-division, during the 10 years ending 1882 the rainfall varied from 44 inches in 1874 to 8 inches in 1876, and averaged 28 inches. Total cultivated area of Government land in 1881–82, 191,580 acres, of which 2585 acres bore two crops; the principal class of crops being—grain crops, 159,545 acres, of which 137,694 were *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 10,572 acres; oil-seeds, 16,827 acres; fibres, 5321 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1900 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 48 men; and village watch (*chaukídárs*), 179. Land revenue, £9443.

Pandharpur (or *The City of Pandhari Vithoba*).—Chief town of the Pandharpur Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 40′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 22′ 40″ E., on the right or southern bank of the Bhíma, a tributary of the Krishna, 84 miles east of Satára, 112 south-east of Poona (Púna), 38 west of Sholápur town, and 31 miles from the Bársi road station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. A mail pony cart plies daily along the road from Bársi station; and other pony carts and hundreds of bullock carts are on hire at the station. The best view of Pandharpur is from the left bank of

the Bhíma. When the river is full, the broad winding Bhíma gay with boats; the islet temples of Vishnupad and Nárad; on the further bank the rows of domed and spired tombs; the crowded flight of steps leading from the water; the shady banks, and among the tree-tops the spires and pinnacles of many large temples, form a scene of much beauty and life.

Population (1881) 16,910. Hindus number 15,680; Muhammadans, 859; Jains, 371. Area, about 150 acres. Pandharpur is one of the most frequented places of pilgrimage in the Bombay Presidency. The *débris* of former buildings have somewhat raised the level of the centre of the town. In that part the houses are comparatively well built, many of them being two or more storeys high, with plinths of hewn stone. Pandharpur is highly revered by Bráhmans, as containing a celebrated temple dedicated to the god Vithoba, an incarnation of Vishnu. Vithoba's temple is near the centre of the part of the town which is considered holy, and is called Pandharikshetra, or the holy spot of Pandhari. It has a length from east to west of 350 feet, and a breadth from north to south of 170 feet. In honour of this god three fairs are annually held. At the first of these, in April, the attendance varies from 20,000 to 30,000 persons; at the second, in July, from 100,000 to 150,000; and at the third, in November, from 40,000 to 50,000. Every month, also, four days before the full moon, from 5000 to 10,000 devotees assemble here. Since 1865, a tax of 6d. per head has been levied on pilgrims at each of the three great fairs. The yield from this source, in 1882, amounted to £4383. The town is well supplied with water, and satisfactory arrangements have been made for the comfort and convenience of pilgrims. The Bhíma has 11 *gháts* or landings, three of which were unfinished in 1884. Besides these, several stone pavements slope to the river.

During the famine of 1876–78, numbers of children were left to die by their starving parents; while the famine lasted, the children were fed in the Gopálpur relief house. When the relief house was closed, an orphanage, the only institution of its kind in the Bombay Presidency, was established from subscriptions, and the foundation stone was laid on the 10th October 1878. In connection with the orphanage a foundling home was established from £1000 subscribed in Bombay, to which a school of industry was added in November 1881.

In 1659, the Bijápur general, Afzul Khán, encamped at Pandharpur on his way from Bijápur to Wai in Satára. In 1774, Pandharpur was the scene of an engagement between Raghunáth Rao Peshwá and Trimbak Rao Mána, sent by the Poona ministers to oppose him. In 1817, an indecisive action was fought near Pandharpur between the Peshwá's horse and the British troops under General Smith, who was accompanied by Mr. Elphinstone. In 1847, the noted *dakáit*, Rághují Bhángrya, was

caught at Pandharpur by Lieutenant, afterwards General, Gell. During 1857 the office and the treasury of the *mámlatdár* were attacked by the rebels, but successfully held by the police. In 1879, Vásudeo Balwant Phadke, a notorious *dakáit* leader, was on his way to Pandharpur, when he was captured.

Pandharpur has a large annual export trade worth about £36,000 in *buka* (sweet-smelling powder), gram-pulse, incense sticks, safflower oil, *kumku* (red powder), maize, parched rice, and snuff. Pandharpur is a municipal town, with an annual revenue of £7369; incidence of municipal taxation, 9s. per head. Sub-judge's court, dispensary, and post-office. Number of patients treated in the dispensary, 10,406 in 1883, of whom 56 were in-door. [For a full and interesting account of Pandharpur, its temples, *ghâts*, and objects of interest, ancient and modern, the reader is referred to the *Gazetteer of Bombay*, vol. xx. pp. 415–485 (Bombay, 1884).]

Pándhurna.—Town and municipality in Chhindwárá *tahsíl*, Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 78° 35′ E., 54 miles south-west of Chhindwárá town, on the main road from Betúl to Nágpur. The municipal limits include the villages of Bamní and Sáwargáon, and contained a total population (1881) of 7469, chiefly agriculturists. Hindus numbered 6854; Muhammadans, 500; Jains, 60; and non-Hindu aborigines, 55. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £302, of which £197 were derived from taxation; average incidence of municipal taxation, 6⅜d. per head. The soil around is rich and produces much cotton. Pándhurna has a police outpost station, travellers' bungalow, *sarái* (native inn), and Government school, with a daily average attendance of about 120 pupils.

Pandri Kalán.—Town in Unao *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; 10 miles south-east of Unao town. Population (1881) 3733, namely, 3620 Hindus and 113 Muhammadans. Market twice a week, with annual sales averaging £900. Government school.

Pandrinton (*Pándrethán*).—Temple in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India; standing in the midst of a tank, about 4 miles south-east of Srínagar, the capital of the Kashmír valley. Lat. 34° 2′ N., long. 74° 47′ E., according to Thornton, who thus describes the building: 'It is a striking specimen of the simple, massive, and chaste style which characterizes the architectural antiquities of Kashmír. The ground plan is a square of 20 feet, and the roof pyramidal. In each of the four sides is a doorway, ornamented with pilasters right and left, and surmounted by a pediment. The whole is constructed of blocks of hewn limestone. The interior is filled with water, communicating with that without, which is about 4 feet deep; and as the building is completely insulated, it can be reached only by wading or swimming. The purpose of its construction is not known, but it is generally considered

a Buddhist relic. It exhibits neither inscriptions nor sculptures, except the figure of a large lotus carved on the roof inside.'

Pándu.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 9¼ square miles; estimated revenue, £520; tribute, of £450, 2s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. There are two principal holders with several sub-shares of the property, half of which has been under British management since 1874, and the other half since 1878, owing to the extreme poverty of the proprietors and their inability to pay the amount of their heavy tribute.

Pándu Mehwás.—Group of 26 petty States forming a territorial division of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 147 square miles. Population (1872) 20,284; (1881) 20,312, namely, 10,785 males and 9527 females, dwelling in 36 villages, containing 4560 houses. Density of population, 138 persons per square mile. Hindus number 19,682, and Muhammadans 630. Estimated revenue, £11,000. The Pándu Mehwás group of estates stretches along the river Máhi in a narrow broken line for 58 miles. Climate healthy. Soil light, yielding millets, rice, and sugar-cane. Kolís, Bariyas, Rájputs, and Musalmáns form the landowning classes. The region is, comparatively, a poor one.

Panduah.—Village, municipality, and railway station in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ 28″ N., long. 88° 19′ 43″ E. Population (1881) 3344, namely, males 1656, and females 1688. Municipal income (1883-84), £125; incidence of taxation, 8¾d. per head. In ancient times, Panduah was the seat of a Hindu Rájá, and fortified by a wall and trench 5 miles in circumference. It is now only a small rural village, picturesquely surrounded by groves, orchards, and gardens. Traces of its ancient fortifications are still discernible at places; a tower (120 feet high), built to commemorate a victory gained by the Muhammadans over the Hindus in 1340 A.D., is said to be the oldest building in Bengal. It has defied the storms and rains of a tropical climate for five centuries, and has seen the rise and fall of Gaur, Sonargáon, Rájmahál, Dacca, and Murshidábád, the successive capitals of Bengal during the Muhammadan era. For the local traditions relating to the war between the Hindus and Muhammadans, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. p. 313. Up to the commencement of the present century, Panduah was the seat of a large native paper manufacture, but not a trace of this industry exists at the present day.

Panduah (or as it is commonly, but less correctly, called, *Paruah*). —Deserted town in Maldah District, Bengal, once the Muhammadan capital of the Province; situated 6 miles from Old Maldah, where there are extensive ruins and remains of paved roadways, showing that this was formerly the river port of Panduah, and about 20 miles from GAUR, in a north-easterly direction from both. Like those of Gaur, the ruins

of Panduah lie buried in almost impenetrable jungle, which for long formed the undisputed home of tigers and other wild animals, till the recent clearances of the jungle made by new settlements of Santál colonies. Although in all respects less noteworthy than Gaur, it contains some remarkable specimens of early Muhammadan architecture. Its comparatively small historical importance has given rise to more than one error. The maps scarcely mark the place at all, and uniformly give some one of the corrupt modes of spelling the name. Hence, when a mention of the place is found in history, it is often confused with the better known but much less important place of the same name in Húglí District. To avoid this difficulty, General Cunningham has proposed that it should be known as Hazrat Panduah. The proximity of Gaur has also overshadowed Panduah, so that the antiquities of the latter place have been sometimes attributed in their entirety to the former.

The fortified city of Panduah or Paruah, the suburbs of which reached to Old Maldah, extended within the ramparts for 6 miles due north along the watershed of this part of the country, some 4 miles to the east of the Mahánandá river, and running nearly parallel with it. It is stated, and apparently with truth, that the Mahánandá many centuries ago flowed past the high ground on which the city of Panduah was built. Old Maldah was the fortified river port south of the city at the junction of the Kálindri and the Mahánandá, while the suburb of Rái Khán Dighí was a similar fortified port on the Mahánandá, 10 miles north of Old Maldah. The fort of Rái Khán Dighí also guarded the bridge over the Mahánandá at Pirganj on the great military road. The attractions offered by the site of Panduah appear to have been its natural elevation and commanding position on the main road to the north, and also the sport afforded by the game of all kinds which abounded in the neighbouring jungles. Panduah was probably originally an outpost, forming one of the many defences of the more ancient city of Gaur, guarding the road from the north from the incursions of Kochs, Pálís, and Rájbansís. It afterwards became a favourite rural retreat, and for some time was the capital of Bengal, when the Muhammadan governors found it a more desirable residence than the palace at Gaur, which was the first part of that city to experience the unhealthiness caused by malarious exhalations, as the Ganges gradually receded westward from below the palace walls in the 14th century. As Panduah increased in wealth and importance, its fortifications were extended, and it was further strengthened by an outpost at Ekdala, some 20 miles to the north, within the limits of the modern District of Dinájpur.

The first appearance of Panduah in history is in the year 1353 A.D., when Iliás Khwája Sultán, the first independent king of Bengal, is said

to have temporarily transferred his capital from Gaur to Panduah. It has been supposed that this king and his successors, who with difficulty repelled the Delhi Emperor, were influenced in their desertion of Gaur by strategic reasons. Panduah was not accessible by water, and was probably then, as now, protected by almost impenetrable jungles. It is not likely that the vast Hindu community of traders and artisans also left their homes at Gaur, but merely that the court was removed. This would explain both the smaller number of ruined dwelling-houses at Panduah, as well as the superior sanctity in which this place is held by the Muhammadans. The court name for Panduah was Firozábád, which during this period regularly makes its appearance on the coins, whereas that of Lakhnautí (Gaur) disappears. The seat of Government remained here during the reigns of five successive monarchs, when it was re-transferred to Gaur. It is probable, however, that Panduah, though its name is not again mentioned in history, maintained its splendour for some time, and was a favourite country resort for royalty.

The history of Panduah is short, and the topography, so far as it has been explored, is equally simple. No survey has ever been taken of the site; and even Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton found himself unable to penetrate through the dense jungle beyond the beaten track. The following description is condensed from his account of the place, contained in his MS. notes on the District of Dinájpur, which in his time (1807–13) included this part of Maldah, whereas Gaur then lay within the District of Purniah.

A road paved with brick, from 12 to 15 feet wide, and not very straight (afterwards the high road from Maldah to Dinájpur), seems to have passed through the entire length of the town, which stretches nearly north and south, and is about 6 miles in length. From the heaps of bricks on both sides, it would appear to have been a regular street, lined with brick houses, of which the foundations and the tanks can still be traced in many places. Almost all the surviving monuments are on the borders of this road. Near the middle is a bridge of three arches, partly constructed of stone, which has been thrown over a rivulet. It is rudely built, and of no great size; and, as is the case with all the other monuments in Panduah, the materials have manifestly come from the Hindu temples of Gaur, as they still show sculptured figures of men and animals. At the northern end of the street are evident traces of a rampart, and the passage through is called Garhdwár, or the gate of the fortress. At the south end are many foundations, which have also probably belonged to a gate, but the forest is so impenetrable that the wall cannot be traced. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton was of opinion that in general the town extended only a little way either east or west from the main street, but that a scattered suburb reached in a southerly direction as far as Maldah.

Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton proceeds to give a detailed description of the ruins, which is too lengthy for insertion in this work, but which will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vii. pp. 60–64. The principal buildings of note are the monuments of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál and his grandson Kutab Sháh, the two most distinguished religious personages under the early Muhammadan kings of Bengal; the Golden Mosque (1585 A.D.), with walls of granite, and 10 domes of brick; the Eklákhi Mosque, containing, according to tradition, the graves of Ghiyás-ud-dín II., the third Muhammadan king of Bengal, and his two sons; the Adíná Masjíd (14th century), by far the most celebrated building in this part of India, and characterized by Mr. Fergusson as the most remarkable example of Pathán architecture in existence; and the Satásgarh ('Sixty Towers'), which is said to have been the palace of one of the kings. A Muhammadan *melá*, or religious gathering, takes place at Panduah every year in October or November; it is attended by 5000 or 6000 persons, and lasts for five days.

Pándya (Πανδαίη of Megasthenes; *Pandi Mandala* of the Periplus; *Pandionis Mediterranea* and *Modura Regia Pandionis* of Ptolemy).—One of the three great Divisions of Drávida or Southern India, the other two being CHOLA and CHERA. The capital was first at Kolkai at the mouth of the Tambraparni, and afterwards at MADURA. Kolkai is now several miles inland. An early legend runs that the three kingdoms were founded by three brothers from Kolkai, the two younger going north and west, and founding Chola and Chera. The kingdom of Pándya included Madura District and all south of it. Its early history is purely legendary; but it is believed to have been founded in the 6th century B.C., and it is known to have been overthrown in the middle of the 11th century of the Christian era, to be restored, after a period of anarchy, by the Náyaks. Bishop Caldwell says: 'The Singhalese traditions preserved in the *Mahávansa* represent Vijáya, the first sovereign of Ceylon, as marrying a daughter of the Pándya king, in consequence of which his son was called Pánduvamsadeva. Arjuna, one of the five Pándava brothers, is related in the *Mahábhárata* to have married a daughter of the King of the Pándyas in the course of his many wanderings. There is no certainty in these traditions, but it is certain that about the time of Pliny and the Periplus a portion of the Malabar coast was ruled over by the Pándyas, a proof that their power had considerably extended itself from its original seats; and I regard it as nearly certain that the Indian king who sent an embassy to Augustus was not Porus, but Pándion, *i.e.* the King of the Pándyas, called in Tamil Pándiyan.' The Senderbandi of Marco Polo is assumed to be a corruption of Sundara Pándya, the King of Madura. [For further information the reader is referred to *The Madura Country*, by J. H. Nelson, M.A., C.S., Madras, 1868, pp. 1–86 of Part iii.]

Panhán.—*Parganá* in Purwá *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Purwá *parganá*, on the east by Mauránwán and Rái Bareli District, on the south by the Lon river, and on the west by Purwá. The surface of the *parganá* is a level plain, except in the extreme south, where there is a slight inclination to the bed of the Lon. There are no jungles, and but few groves, but *babúl* trees grow plentifully along the Lon, on a tract of saliferous land, where salt was formerly manufactured on an extensive scale. This industry has, however, disappeared as a private undertaking under British rule. Near the Rái Bareli border is a large lake or *jhíl*, known as the Sudna Taláb, which is well stocked with fish. Area, 19 square miles, of which 9 are cultivated. Population (1881) 7566, namely, 7362 Hindus and 204 Muhammadans. Of the 23 villages or *mauzás* comprising the *parganá*, 9 are *tálukdárí* and 14 *mufrád*. Government land revenue demand, £1599. The *parganá* was formerly in the hands of the Bhars, and the ruins of an old fort are pointed out as the remains of the ancient Bhar stronghold. The Bhars were expelled many centuries ago by the Bais chieftain Abhai Chánd.

Panhán.—Town in Purwá *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Panhán *parganá*; situated 24 miles south of Unao town, on the road to Rái Bareli. Lat. 26° 25′ N., long. 80° 54′ E. Population (1881) 237, namely, 199 Hindus and 38 Muhammadans. Three Hindu temples. Two annual fairs are held in honour of a Muhammadan saint, each attended by about 4000 persons, at which the sales average £2400. Vernacular school, attended by 50 boys.

Pan-hlaing.—Creek in Rangoon and Thun-gwa Districts, Lower Burma. Runs from the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) at Nyaung-dun to the Hlaing, just above Rangoon town. Its banks are steep and muddy, and covered with grass, trees, and plantain gardens. In the rains, river steamers can navigate this channel throughout its whole length; but in the dry season, boats are compelled to take a circuitous route up the Pan-daing creek to Pan-daing village, and thence by a narrow passage back to the Pan-hlaing above the shoals between the villages of Kat-ti-ya and Me-za-li.

Pania.—Town in Deoriá *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* PAINA.

Paniála.—Agricultural village or collection of hamlets in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 55′ 15″ E., at the entrance to the Largi valley, 32 miles north of Dera Ismáil Khán town. Population (1881) 6603. Staging bungalow, abundant supplies.

Pánimar.—Village in the south of Nowgong District, Assam, on the Kapilí river, where it debouches into the plains from the Jáintia Hills. In the neighbourhood, good building-stone and limestone abound.

Pánípat.—Southern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Karnál District, Punjab. Area, 458 square miles, with 166 towns and villages, 26,715 houses, and 42,406 families. Total population (1881) 186,793, namely, males 100,301, and females 86,492. Average density of the population, 408 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 137,801, or 73·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 45,908, or 24·6 per cent.; Sikhs, 213; Jains, 2858; and Christians, 13. Of the 166 towns and villages, 60 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 40 from five hundred to a thousand; 65 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. The average area under cultivation for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 229¼ square miles, or 146,701 acres, the area occupied by the chief crops being as follows:—Wheat, 49,710 acres; *joár*, 26,155 acres; gram, 15,943 acres; rice, 8263 acres; barley, 7719 acres; other food-grains, consisting of *bájra*, Indian corn, and *moth*, 7020 acres; cotton, 12,932 acres; sugar-cane, 11,451 acres; vegetables, 763 acres; and tobacco, 426 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £27,385. The *tahsíldár* is the only administrative officer, and presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 109 men; rural police (*chaukídárs*), 306.

Pánípat (*Paniput*).—Decayed town, municipality, and famous battle-field in Karnál District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the Pánípat *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 29° 23′ N., long. 77° 1′ 10″ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 53 miles north of Delhi, near the old bank of the Jumna, upon a high mound composed of the *débris* of centuries. Pánípat town is of great antiquity, dating back to the period of the war between the Pándavas and the Kauravas, when it formed one of the well-known *pats* or *prásthas* demanded by Yudishthira from Duryodhana as the price of peace.

In historical times, the neighbourhood of Pánípat has thrice formed the scene of decisive battles, which sealed the fate of Upper India. The great military road which runs north-west through Hindustán to the frontier, bisects the broad plain of Pánípat, at a distance of about 50 miles from Delhi. Count von Noer, whose interesting *Life of Akbar* is shortly to be published in an English form by Mrs. Beveridge, thus describes the scenery of that wide expanse:—'Pánípat is a far-reaching, almost illimitable level tract, broken only by insignificant undulations. Here and there, where the shallow soil is moistened from some niggardly watercourse, grow sparse grasses and stunted thorn bushes. But for the most part, the eye falls only on the uniform yellowish-grey waste of sterile earth. Everywhere empty silence reigns; and it would almost seem as if this desert had been designed for the battle-field of nations.'

In 1526, Bábar with his small but veteran army met Ibráhím Lodi at the head of 100,000 troops near Pánípat, and, after a battle lasting

from sunrise to sunset, completely defeated the imperial forces. Ibráhím Lodi fell with 15,000 of his followers; and in May 1526, Bábar entered Delhi and established the so-called Mughal dynasty. Thirty years later, in 1556, his grandson, Akbar, on the same battle-field conquered Hemu, the Hindu general of the Afghán Sher Sháh, whose family had temporarily driven that of Bábar from the throne, thus a second time establishing the Mughal power. Finally, on 7th January 1761, Ahmad Sháh Duráni fought beneath the walls of Pánípat the decisive battle which shattered for ever the unity of the Maráthá power, and placed the destinies of the Empire in the hands of the Afghán conqueror. The following graphic account of this great battle is taken from an article by Mr. H. G. Keene in the *Calcutta Review*, 1879:—

'The Maráthá troops marched in an oblique line, with their left in front, preceded by their guns small and great. The Bháo, with the Peshwá's son and the household troops, was in the centre. The left wing consisted of the *gardis* under Ibráhím Khán; Holkar and Sindhia were on the extreme right.

'On the other side, the Afgháns formed a somewhat similar line, their left being formed by Najíb's Rohillás, and their right by two brigades of Persian troops. Their left centre was led by the two Wazírs, Shujá-ud-daulá and Sháh Walí. The right centre consisted of Rohillás under the well-known Hafiz Ráhmat and other chiefs of the Indian Patháns. Day broke; but the Afghán artillery for the most part kept silence, while that of the enemy, losing range in its constant advance, threw away its ammunition over the heads of the enemy, and dropped its shot a mile to their rear. Sháh Pasand Khán covered the left wing with a choice body of mailed Afghán horsemen; and in this order the army moved forward, leaving the Sháh at his usual post, which was now in rear of the line, from whence he could watch and direct the battle.

'On the other side, no great precautions seem to have been taken, except indeed by the *gardis* and their vigilant leader, who advanced in silence, and without firing a shot, with two battalions of infantry bent back to their left flank, to cover their advance from the attack of the Persian cavalry forming the extreme right of the enemy's line. The valiant veteran soon showed the worth of French discipline; and another division such as his would have probably gained the day. Well mounted and armed, and carrying in his own hand the colours of his own personal command, he led his men against the Rohilkhand column with fixed bayonets; and to so much effect, that nearly 8000 men were put *hors de combat.* For three hours the *gardis* remained in unchallenged possession of that part of the field. Shujá-ud-daulá, with his small but compact force, remained stationary, neither fighting nor flying; and the Maráthás forbore to attack him. The corps between

this and the Patháns was that of the Duráni Wazír; and it suffered severely from the shock of an attack delivered upon them by the Bháo himself, at the head of the household troops. The Pandit being sent through the dust to inform Shujá what was going on, found Sháh Walí vainly trying to rally the courage of his followers, of whom many were in full retreat. "Whither would you run, friends?" cried the Wazír; "your country is far from here!"

'Meanwhile the prudent Najíb had masked his advance by a series of breastworks, under cover of which he had gradually approached the hostile line. "I have the highest stake to-day," he said, "and cannot afford to make any mistakes." The part of the enemy's force immediately opposed to him was commanded by the head of the Sindhia house, who was Najíb's personal enemy. Till noon, Najíb remained on the defensive, keeping off all close attacks upon his earthworks by continuous discharges of rockets. But so far the fortune of the day was evidently inclined towards the Maráthás. The Muhammadan left still held their own under the Wazírs and Najíb, but the centre was cut in two, and the right was almost destroyed.

'Of the circumstances which turned the tide and gave the crisis to the Moslems, but one account necessarily exists. Hitherto we have had the guidance of Grant-Duff for the Maráthá side of the affair; but now the whole movement was to be from the other side, and we cannot do better than trust the Pandit. Dow, the only other contemporary author of importance—if we except Ghulám Husain, who wrote at a very remote place—is irremediably inaccurate and vague about all these transactions. The Pandit, then, informs us that during the earlier hours of the conflict, the Sháh had watched the fortunes of the battle from his tent, guarded by the still unbroken forces on his left. But now, hearing that his right was reeling and his centre was defeated, he felt that the moment was come for a final effort. In front of him the Hindu cries of *Har! Har! Jai Mahádeo!* were maintaining an equal and dreadful concert with those of *Allah! Allah! Dín! Dín!* from his own side. The battle wavered to and fro, like that of Flodden, as described by Scott. The Sháh saw the critical moment in the very act of passing. He therefore sent 500 of his own body-guard with orders to drive all able-bodied men out of camp, and send them to the front at any cost. Fifteen hundred more he sent to encounter those who were flying, and slay without pity any who would not return to the fight. These, with 4000 of his reserve troops, went to support the broken ranks of the Rohillá Patháns on the right. The remainder of the reserve, 10,000 strong, were sent to the aid of Sháh Walí, still labouring unequally against the Bháo in the centre of the field. The Sháh's orders were clear. The mailed warriors were to charge with the Wazír in close order, and at full

gallop. As often as they charged the enemy in front, the chief of the staff and Najíb were directed to fall upon either flank. These orders were immediately carried out.

'The forward movement of the Moslems began at 1 P.M. The fight was close and obstinate, men fighting with swords, spears, axes, and even with daggers. Between 2 and 3 P.M., the Peshwá's son was wounded, and, having fallen from his horse, was placed upon an elephant. The last thing seen of the Bháo was his dismounting from the elephant, and getting on his Arab charger. Soon after, the young chief was slain. The next moment Holkar and the Gáekwár left the field. In that instant resistance ceased, and the Maráthás all at once became helpless victims of butchery. Thousands were cut down, other thousands were drowned in escaping, or were slaughtered by the country people whom they had so long pillaged. The Sháh and his principal commanders then retired to camp, leaving the pursuit to be completed by subordinate officers. Forty thousand prisoners are said to have been slain.'

The plain of Pánípat was selected as the arena for the manœuvres connected with the great Indian Camp of Exercise of December 1885. The general plan of the operations comprised the advance of an invading army from the north, upon Delhi; and the defence of that city, by the counter-movements of an opposing force.

The modern town of Pánípat is built upon a small promontory due south of Karnál, round which runs the old bed of the Jumna. From all sides the town slopes gently upwards towards an old fort, which is its highest point, and with low and squalid outskirts receiving the drainage of the higher portion. The town is enclosed by an old wall with 15 gates, and suburbs extend in all directions except to the east. It is intersected by two main *bázárs* crossing each other in the centre. The streets are all well paved or metalled, but are narrow and crooked.

The population in 1881 numbered 25,022, namely, males 12,431, and females 12,591. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 16,917; Hindus, 7334; Jains, 768; and 'others,' 3. Number of houses, 2952. Municipal income (1883–84), £2063, or an average of 1s. 7¼d. per head of the municipal population (25,651). The municipal income is chiefly derived from octroi duties levied on almost all goods brought to the town for consumption.

The opening of the railway on the opposite side of the Jumna has somewhat prejudiced the commercial position of Pánípat, having attracted to it much of the traffic formerly passing along the Grand Trunk Road. The local manufactures consist of copper utensils for export, country cloth, blankets, cutlery, silver beads, and glass ornaments for women's dress. Pánípat was formerly the head-quarters of the District, which

was transferred to Karnál in 1854, owing to the growing unhealthiness of the former place. The principal public buildings, apart from the ordinary Sub-divisional courts and offices, are the municipal hall, post-office, police station, school, rest-house, and large *sarái* or native inn.

Panjáb.—Province of Northern India.—*See* PUNJAB.

Panjim (or *New Goa*).—The central quarter of New Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India.—*See* GOA.

Panjnád.—Great river of the Punjab, formed by the united waters of the Sutlej (Satlaj), Beas (Biás), Rávi, Chenáb, and Jehlam (Jhelum). Commences at the confluence of the Sutlej (Satlaj) with the Trimáb or Chenáb, in lat. 29° 21′ N., and long. 71° 3′ E., and, taking a south-westerly course of about 60 miles, joins the Indus nearly opposite Mithankot, in lat. 28° 57′ N., and long. 70° 29′ E. The Panjnád separates the British District of Muzaffargarh from the Native State of Baháwalpur. The stream, even after the junction with the Sutlej, often bears the name of the Chenáb.

Pan-ma-myit-ta.—Tidal creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It connects the Pya-ma-law and Ywe streams, and is navigable by river steamers at all times, and is the route generally followed by small vessels plying between Rangoon and Bassein.

Pan-ma-wa-di.—Creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Under the name of the Thi-kwin, it leaves the Min-ma-naing near the village of Tan-ta-bin, in about lat. 16° 50′ N., and long. 95° 13′ E. After a generally westerly course of about 60 miles, the Pan-ma-wa-di unites with the BASSEIN, the depth at its mouth being 10 fathoms at low-water spring-tides. River steamers can ascend at all seasons as far as the village of Thi-kwin, a distance of 48 miles, where the channel is 200 feet broad. The chief branches of the Pan-ma-wa-di are the Min-di and the Min-ma-naing.

Panna (*Punnah*).—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency of Central India. Bounded on the north by the British District of Bánda, and by one of the outlying divisions of Charkhári State; on the east by the States of Kothi, Suháwal, Nagode, and Ajaigarh; on the south by Damoh and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Districts of the Central Provinces; and on the west by the petty States of Chhatarpur and Ajaigarh. Estimated area, 2568 square miles. Population (1881) 227,306. Panna is for the most part situated on the table-lands above the Vindhyan Gháts, and contains much hill and jungle land.

The former prosperity of the State was due to its diamond mines. The diamonds were found in several places, especially on the north-east of the town ('Panna Mines'). 'The ground on the surface and for a few feet below,' says Thornton, from whom this paragraph is condensed,

'consists of ferruginous gravel, mixed with reddish clay; and this loose mass, when carefully washed and searched, yields diamonds, though few in number and of small size. The matrix containing in greater quantity the more valuable diamonds lies considerably lower, at a depth varying generally from 12 to 40 feet, and is a conglomerate of pebbles of quartz, jasper, hornstone, Lydian stone, etc. The fragments of this conglomerate, quarried and brought to the surface, are carefully pounded; and after several washings, to remove the softer and more clayey parts, the residue is repeatedly searched for the diamonds. As frequently happens in such speculative pursuits, the returns often scarcely equal the outlay, and the adventurers are ruined. The business is now much less prosperous than formerly, but Jacquemont did not consider that there were in his time any symptoms of exhaustion in the adamantiferous deposits, and attributed the unfavourable change to the diminished value of the gem everywhere. The rejected rubbish, if examined after a lapse of some years, has been frequently found to contain valuable gems, which some suppose have in the interval been produced in the congenial matrix; but experienced and skilful miners are generally of opinion that the diamonds escaped the former search, in consequence of incrustation by some opaque coat, and have now been rendered obvious to the sight from its removal by fracture, friction, or some other accidental cause. More extensive and important than the tract just referred to is another extending from 12 to 20 miles north-east of the town of Panna, and worked in the localities of Kamariya, Brijpur, Bargári, Maira, and Etwa. Diamonds of the first water, or completely colourless, are very rare, most of those found being either pearly, greenish, yellowish, rose-coloured, black, or brown.'

Pogson, who worked one of the mines on his own account, mentions that the diamonds are of four sorts—the *motichal*, which is clear and brilliant; the *mánik*, of greenish hue; the *panna*, which is tinged with orange; and the *bauspat*, which is blackish. In his time, the mines chiefly worked were at Sakáriya, about 12 miles from Panna; and he thus describes the operation: 'The diamonds there are found below a stratum of rock from 15 to 20 feet thick. To cut through this rock is, as the natives work, a labour of many months, and even years; but when the undertaking is prosecuted with diligence, industry, and vigour, the process is as follows:—On the removal of the superficial soil, the rock is cut with chisels, broken with large hammers, and a fire at night is sometimes lit on the spot, which renders it more friable. Supposing the work to be commenced in October, the miners may possibly cut through the rock by March. The next four months are occupied in digging out the gravel in which diamonds are found; this is usually a work of much labour and delay, in consequence of the necessity of frequently emptying the water from the mines. The miners

then await the setting in of the rainy season, to furnish them with a supply of water for the purpose of washing the gravel.' The same writer considers that 'inexhaustible strata producing diamonds exist here.' 'None of the great diamonds now known appear to be traceable to the mines in Panna, and Tieffenthaler mentions it as a general opinion that those of Golconda are superior.' During the prosperity of the mines, a tax of 25 per cent. was levied on their produce, but the tax now imposed is stated to exceed this rate. The revenue is divided in proportions between the Rájás of Panna and Charkhári. The value of the diamonds still found in the mines is estimated at £12,000 per annum. Iron is also found in the State.

The chief of Panna is descended from Hardi Sáh, one of the sons of the famous Mahárájá Chhatar Sál. When the British entered Bundelkhand, Rájá Kishor Singh was the chief of the State, which was then in a condition of complete anarchy. He was confirmed in his possessions by *sanads* granted in 1807 and 1811. As a reward for services rendered during the Mutiny of 1857, the Rájá received the privilege of adoption, a dress of honour of the value of £2000, and a personal salute of 13 guns. The present Mahárájá, Rudra Pratáp Singh, who is a Búndela Rájput, succeeded in 1870; and in 1876 he was invested with the insignia of a Knight Commander of the Star of India by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

The population of Panna was in 1881 returned at 227,306 persons, dwelling in 1 town and 867 villages, and occupying 45,414 houses; males numbered 118,349, females 108,957. Average number of persons per square mile, 88·5. Hindus number 203,425; Muhammadans, 5989; Jains, 1271; Christians, 9; Pársís, 3; aboriginal Gonds, 8886; and Kols, 7723. The land revenue is estimated at 5 *lákhs* of rupees (say £50,000), but much of this amount is alienated. A small and fluctuating revenue is also derived from a tax on the diamond mines. Tribute of £995 is paid on the districts of Surájpur and Ektána. A road was constructed by the late Mahárájá Narpál Singh from his capital to Simáriya in the Damoh direction (40 miles). The present chief has constructed another road towards the north, through Bísrám Ghát, a distance of 14 miles, at a cost of about £6500, and which for tracing and workmanship will bear comparison with any hill-road in the country. Schools have also been founded in the State. A military force is maintained of 250 cavalry and 2440 infantry, with 19 guns and 60 artillerymen.

Panna.—Chief town of the Native State of Panna, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 43′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 13′ 55″ E., on the route from Bánda to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), 62 miles south of the former and 169 miles north of the latter; distant from Kalpi 130 miles south, and from Allahábád 173 south-west. Population (1881)

14,676, namely, 8194 males and 6482 females. Hindus number 12,500; Muhammadans, 2028; and 'others,' 148. Elevation above sea-level, 1147 feet. Panna is a clean, well-laid-out city, built almost entirely of stone, which is found in abundance in the neighbourhood. Several large modern Hindu temples; and an imposing-looking edifice of nondescript design has been lately completed by the chief as a temple to Baladeo (a name of Balaráma, brother of Krishna). A new palace, now under construction, will, when completed, be a handsome building. On a table covered with gold cloth lies the volume of Prán Náth, in an apartment of the building consecrated to the use of the sect founded by Prán Náth, a Kshattriya, who, being versed in Muhammadan as well as in Hindu learning, attempted to reconcile the two religions. The neighbouring diamond mines, which take their name from the town, are described in the article on PANNA STATE (*vide supra*).

Panniár (*Punniar*).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 6′ 12″ N., and long. 78° 2′ 2″ E., 12 miles south-west of Gwalior fort. 'Scene of an engagement,' writes Thornton, 'on the 29th December 1843 (the date of the victory of Mahárájpur), between the British and Maráthá forces. Major-General Grey, leading from Bundelkhand a British detachment to co-operate with that marching from Agra under the conduct of Sir Hugh Gough, commander-in-chief, crossed the river Sind at Chándpur, and proceeding north-west, after a march of 16 miles, was attacked by the Maráthá army, strongly posted near the village of Mangor. The British army took post at Panniár, and, by a series of attacks, drove the enemy from all points of his position, capturing all his artillery, amounting to 24 pieces, and all his ammunition. The Maráthá army is represented to have been about 12,000 strong, and to have suffered most severely. The British loss amounted to 35 killed and 182 wounded.'

Panroti (*Panrutti*).—Town in Cuddalore *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the South Indian Railway. A large market town, being situated at the junction of several important roads. Lat. 11° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 79° 35′ 16″ E. Population (1881) 20,172, namely, 10,021 males and 10,151 females. Hindus number 18,953; Muhammadans, 1135; and Christians, 84.

Pantalaori.—Petty State of the Sankheda Mehwás in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 5 square miles. There are two chiefs, Nathu Khán and Názír Khán. Estimated revenue, £200.

Pántán.—Forest reserve in the south of Kámrúp District, Assam, on the left bank of the Kulsí river; containing valuable *sál* timber. Area, 12 square miles.

Pan-ta-naw.—Township in Thun-gwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Area, 489 square miles; revenue (1877), £16,482,

and (1881) £36,072. It is divided into 8 revenue circles, with a total population (1881) of 40,410 persons. The greater part of the country is covered with forests.

Pan-ta-naw.—Town in the Pan-ta-naw township, Thun-gwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; situated on the river Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in lat. 16° 55′ N., and long. 95° 28′ E. Population, 5824 in 1877, and 6174 in 1881. Head-quarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. Considerable river-borne traffic in *nga-pí*, dried fish, piece-goods, and hardware.

Panth-Piplanda.—Guaranteed chiefship (Thakúrát) under the Western Málwá Agency. Consisting of 10 villages. Population (1881) 4086, dwelling in 903 houses. Hindus number 3989; Muhammadans, 93; and non-Hindu aborigines, 4.

Panwári.—South-western *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KULPAHAR.

Panwel.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. This Sub-division includes the petty Division of Uran, and lies in the south-west of the District, having along its eastern boundary the lofty Báva Malang, Matherán, and Prabal ranges, and the Manikgarh range on the south-east. It has many natural advantages; its seaboard and rivers give it the command of water carriage to Bombay as well as in the interior, while the Poona and Bombay road supplies excellent land communication. The climate, though damp and unhealthy for Europeans, is temperate except in the hot season, at which time the water-supply gets scanty. Area, 307 square miles, containing 2 towns and 217 villages. Population (1872) 96,714; (1881) 101,181, namely, 52,140 males and 49,041 females. Hindus number 93,816; Muhammadans, 5920; and 'others,' 1445. In 1879–80, the separate holdings numbered 13,105, of an average area of 6⅜ acres each, and paying an average assessment of £1, 8s. 11d. Total area in 1881, exclusive of 91 square miles occupied by the lands of alienated villages, 216 square miles. Of the Government area, 76,691 acres were returned as cultivable, 8959 acres as uncultivable, 39,132 acres as forest land, 4021 acres as salt land, and 6926 acres occupied by village sites, etc. Total cultivated area of Government land in 1880–81, 49,466 acres, of which 364 acres were twice cropped. Principal crops—grain, 46,535 acres; pulses, 2382 acres; oil-seeds, 434 acres; fibres, 29 acres; and miscellaneous, 450 acres. Rice occupied 43,936 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 65 men. Land revenue (1882–83), £19,618.

Panwel.—Chief town of the Panwel Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency; situated 20 miles south by east of Thána town, on the high road to Poona, in lat. 18° 58′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 9′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 10,351, namely, 5462 males and 4889 females.

Hindus number 7807; Muhammadans, 2186; Jains, 95; Christians, 20; Pársís, 15; and 'others,' 228. Panwel is the chief of four ports constituting the Panwel Customs Division. The average annual value of trade at Panwel port during the five years ending 1881-82 was—imports £5245, and exports £12,129. In 1881-82, the trade of Panwel port was—imports £4278, and exports £7160. The sea trade of Panwel is entirely coasting. The chief imports are grain, fish, liquor, gunny-bags, *mahuá* flowers, cocoa-nut, timber, from Bombay, Surat, Broach, and the neighbouring ports of Thána. The chief exports—grain, *ghí*, fire-wood, cart-wheel and axle oil, oil-seed, to Bombay, Surat, Broach, Bhaunagar, and neighbouring ports of Thána. The chief local industry is the construction of cart-wheels, of which it is said that every cart from the Deccan carries away a pair. Brick-making on a large scale has been attempted, but the enterprise has on two occasions failed. Panwel port is mentioned as carrying on trade with Europe in 1570; and it probably rose to importance along with Bombay, as it is on the direct Bombay-Deccan route. Sub-judge's court, post-office, dispensary; four schools with 554 pupils in 1883.

Paoní.—Village and administrative head-quarters of Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* PAUNI.

Pápaghní ('*Sin-Destroyer*').—River of Southern India, rising in Mysore State. After entering the Madanapalli *táluk* in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras (lat. 13° 43′ N., long. 78° 10′ E.), it flows through the large tank, Vyasa-samudram, at Kandakúr, and thence north through the Pálkonda Hills at Vempalli, where it is known as the Gandairú ('River of the Gorge'). Thence it flows through the Cuddapah *táluk* into the Penner, the confluence being in lat. 14° 37′ N., and long. 78° 47′ E. The Pápaghní is held sacred, and on its banks, in the Pálinendla *táluk*, is a large pagoda. A girder bridge on the north-west line of the Madras Railway, with 22 spans of 72 feet, crosses the river a short distance from Kamalápur.

Pápanásham ('*Removal of Sin*').—Village in Ambásamúdram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 48′ N., long. 77° 24′ E. Noted as a place of pilgrimage, and for the falls of the Támbraparni river. Situated about six miles west of Ambásamúdram. The cataract is only 80 feet high, but the body of water is very great. The pagoda is much venerated. The fish here are fed by the Bráhmans, and come up for food when called.

Pápikonda.—Mountain in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* BISON RANGE.

Pa-pun.—Head-quarters of Salwin (Salween) District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated on the Yunzalin river. Contains a court-house, temporary hospital, and dispensary; a strong police force is quartered in a stockade close to the village.

Párad Singha.—Village in Kátol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2780, namely, Hindus, 2669; Muhammadans, 55; Jains, 22; non-Hindu aborigines, 34.

Paráhát.—Sequestrated estate in Singhbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 791 square miles. Population (1872) 54,374, dwelling in 380 villages and 10,327 houses. Number of Hindus, 26,364; Muhammadans, 200; Christians, 484; and 'others,' 27,326. Average number of persons per square mile, 69; villages per square mile, 0·48; houses per square mile, 13; persons per house, 5·3; proportion of males in total population, 50·8. No returns of area or population of this estate are separately given in the Census Report of 1881.

Two rival legends are current concerning the origin of the chiefs of Paráhát, who were formerly called Rájás of Singhbhúm. One of these, apparently an aboriginal tradition, alleges that the founder of the family was discovered as a boy in a hollow tree, which a Bhuiyá forester was cutting down. This boy became the head of the Bhuiyá tribe, and worshipped Pauri or Pahárí Deví, a peculiarly Bhuiyá divinity, corresponding to the Thákuráni Mái of the Bhuiyás in Keunjhar The Singh family themselves, however, claim to be Kshattriyas of pure blood. They assert that, many generations ago, the first of their race, a Kadambansí Rájput from Márwár, while passing through the country on a pilgrimage to the shrine of Jagannáth at Purí, was chosen by the people as their Rájá. Some time afterwards, a dispute arose between the Bhuiyás of Eastern Singhbhúm and the Larka Kols of the central tract of Kolhán; the chief's family joined the Kols, and after they had put down the Bhuiyás, claimed sovereignty over both tribes. This latter legend is no doubt open to suspicion, as arrogating to the family a distant foreign origin, and indirectly supporting their invalid claim to supremacy over the Kols; but it is corroborated by the fact that good families admit the Rájput origin of the Paráhát chief.

The estate of Paráhát or Singhbhúm Proper was saved by its rocky boundaries and sterile soil from conquest by the Maráthás, and was thoroughly independent when, in 1818, Rájá Ghanshám Singh Deo tendered his allegiance to the British Government. The neighbouring estates of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán abutted on the frontier of the old Jungle Maháls of Western Bengal; and as early as 1793, engagements relating to fugitive rebels had been taken from their chiefs. But the Paráhát estate lay farther west, and there had previously been no communication between its chief and the British Government. The objects of the Rájá in thus becoming a British feudatory were,—first, to be recognised as lord paramount over Vikrám Singh, ancestor of the present Rájá of Sáraikalá, and Bábu Chaitan Singh of Kharsáwán; secondly, to regain possession of a certain tutelary image, which had fallen into the hands of Bábu Vikrám Singh of Sáraikalá; and lastly, to obtain aid

in reducing the refractory tribe of Larka Kols or Hos. The British Government, while disallowing his claim to supremacy over his kinsmen of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán, exacted from him a nominal tribute of Rs. 101 (£10, 2s.), and declined to interfere in any way with the internal administration of the estate. An engagement embodying these conditions was taken from him on the 1st of February 1820; and it was intended that similar agreements should be entered into by the chiefs of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán. The matter, however, appears to have been overlooked at the time; and those chiefs have never paid tribute, though they have frequently been called upon to furnish contingents of armed men to aid in suppressing disturbances. In 1823, the Rájá of Paráhát regained by a Government order the family idol, which he had claimed in 1818 from the Rájá of Sáraikalá. But he gradually sank into poverty, and in 1837 was granted a pension of Rs. 500 (£50) as a compassionate allowance, in compensation for any losses he might have sustained in consequence of our assumption of the direct management of the Kolhán. In 1857, Arjun Singh, the last Rájá of Paráhát, after delivering up to Government the Cháibása mutineers, in a moment of caprice rebelled himself, and was sentenced to imprisonment for life at Benares. The estate of Paráhát was confiscated, and is now under the direct management of Government.

Parambakudi.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PARMAGUDI.

Paramukka.—Site of old town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* FEROKH.

Párangla.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Western Himálayan range from Kibbár in Spiti to Rúpshú in Ladákh. Lat. 32° 31′ N., long. 78° 1′ E. Practicable for laden *yáks* and ponies. Elevation above sea-level, about 18,500 feet.

Parántij.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the extreme north-east of Ahmadábád District. Area, 449 square miles, containing 2 towns and 159 villages. Population (1872) 106,934; (1881) 107,554, namely, 55,099 males and 52,455 females, dwelling in 24,486 houses. Hindus number 96,922; Muhammadans, 7561; and 'others,' 3071. From the north-east, lines of rocky, bare hills gradually sink west and south into a plain, at first thinly wooded and poorly tilled, then with deeper soil, finer trees, and better tillage, till in the extreme west along the banks of the Sabarmati, the surface is broken by ravines and ridges. In the east, the staple crop is maize, and in the west millet. Garden cultivation is neglected. Water abundant. The Sub-division is the healthiest and coolest part of the District. Total area, exclusive of 137 square miles occupied by the lands of alienated villages, 312 square miles. Of the Government area in 1877–78, 195,619 acres were returned as occupied land, of

which 22,669 acres were alienated land, 92,953 acres cultivable, 59,474 acres uncultivable waste, and 43,192 acres of village sites, etc. Total cultivated area of Government land in 1877–78, 72,026 acres, of which 3441 acres were twice cropped. Principal crops—grain crops, 53,205 acres, of which 29,924 were under *bájra;* pulses, 19,458 acres; oil-seeds, 2572 acres; fibres, 42 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 190 acres. In 1861–62, the year of Settlement, 10,035 holdings were recorded, with an average area of 9¼ acres, and paying an average revenue of 17s. 4½d. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 3 criminal courts and 2 police circles (*thánás*); regular police, 122 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 644. Land revenue, £13,830.

Parántij (*Parantej*).—Chief town of the Parántij Sub-division, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 23° 26′ 20″ N., long. 72° 53′ 45″ E., 33 miles north-west of Ahmadábád city. Population (1881) 8353. Hindus number 5252; Muhammadans, 2165; Jains, 932; and 'others,' 4. Parántij is a prosperous town. Its special manufacture is soap; there are six soap factories with a yearly out-turn of about 178 tons. Parántij is a municipality, with an income in 1883–84 of £378; incidence of taxation per head of population, 7¾d. Post-office, travellers' bungalow, dispensary, and two schools with 557 pupils in 1883. Exports, *ghí*, grain, and leather of annual value of £1980.

Párasgarh.—Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-east corner of the District. A low range of sandstone hills running north-west and south-east divides Párasgarh into two nearly equal parts. South-west of the hills, whose southern face is steep and rugged, is a plain of fine black soil with many rich villages and hamlets, which suffered severely in the famine of 1876–77. The north-east, which is broken by low hills, is a high waving plateau overgrown with bush and prickly pear; the soil mostly poor and sandy. In the extreme north, the sandstone gives place to trap, and the soil is generally shallow and poor. The Málprabha, which flows north-east through the middle of the Sub-division, forms with its feeders the chief water-supply. Before the close of the hot season, almost all the small streams dry and stagnate; and the well and pond water is scanty and unwholesome. In the north and east, the rainfall is scanty and uncertain; but in the south and west, and in the immediate neighbourhood of the Sahyádri hills it is plentiful. Area, 640 square miles; contains 1 town and 126 villages. Population (1872) 120,691; (1881) 91,826, namely, 45,404 males and 46,422 females, dwelling in 17,770 houses. Hindus number 84,419; Muhammadans, 6384; and 'others,' 1023. Total area, exclusive of 100 square miles occupied by the lands of alienated villages, 540 square miles. Of the Government area, 171,495 acres were returned in 1881 as cultivable, 1893 acres as uncul-

tivable, 83 acres grass, and 59,080 acres village sites, etc. In 1881–82, of 152,787 acres held for tillage, 12,535 were fallow or under grass. Total cultivated area of Government land in 1881–82, 140,252 acres, of which 13,732 acres were twice cropped. Principal crops—grain crops, 106,941 acres; pulses, 12,013 acres; oil-seeds, 7901 acres; fibres, 26,671 acres, of which 26,608 were under cotton; and miscellaneous crops, 458 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained courts—civil 1, and criminal 3; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 55 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 469. Land revenue, £18,744. The head-quarters of the Sub-division is at SAUNDATTI village.

Párasnáth. — Hill and place of Jain pilgrimage, in the east of Hazáribágh, and adjoining Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 57′ 35″ N., long. 86° 10′ 30″ E. The mountain consists of a central narrow ridge, with rocky peaks, rising abruptly to 4488 feet above sea-level from the plains on the south-west, and throwing out long spurs, which extend towards the Barákhar river on the north. A spur to the south-east forms the boundary between the Districts of Hazáribágh and Mánbhúm, and eventually subsides into an extended belt of high land with peaked hills in the latter District.

Párasnáth was ascended apparently for the first time by a European, Colonel Franklin, in 1819. He climbed by a narrow steep path, through thick forest, on the northern slope. 'As you ascend,' he wrote, 'the mountain presents a stupendous appearance. At intervals you perceive the summit, appearing in bluff, jagged peaks, eight in number, and towering to the clouds. From an opening in the forest the view is inexpressibly grand, the wide extent of the jungle *tarái* stretching beneath your feet. The summit, emphatically termed by the Jains *Asmid* (more correctly, *Samet*) *Sikhar*, or "The Peak of Bliss," is composed of a table-land flanked by twenty small Jain temples on the craggy peaks.' In 1827, Párasnáth was visited by a Government officer, in the course of his official tour, who describes it as 'thickly covered with magnificent trees from the plain to within a few yards of each pinnacle.'

Dr. (now Sir Joseph) Hooker ascended the hill from the Táldángá side in 1848, and was much impressed by its beauty: 'As the sun rose, Párasnáth appeared against the clear grey in the form of a beautiful broad cone, with a rugged peak of a deeper grey than the sky. It is a remarkably handsome mountain, sufficiently lofty to be imposing; and it is surrounded by lesser hills of just sufficient elevation to set it off.' Parts of the forest have disappeared, and there is now a good pathway to the top, but the hill still retains much of its old wild beauty; and the valleys of the Barákhar and Damodár rivers, which stretch on either side, form a striking landscape.

The hill is now easily approached by the East Indian Railway to

Giridhi station, and thence by a short journey along a metalled road, the distance being about 18 miles. In 1858, Párasnáth was selected as a convalescent depôt for European troops. The coolness of its climate (averaging during the seven hot months 16° F. below that of the plains), the purity of its air, its nearness to Calcutta, and the abundant building materials on the spot, recommended the hill for this purpose. Buildings were erected; but the water-supply proved sufficient for only from 60 to 80 men, the plateau at the summit was too confined for exercise, and the solitude and quiet exerted a depressing influence on the invalid soldiers. They conceived an intense dislike to the spot, and begged to be allowed to take their chance in hospital on the plains. This feeling seriously retarded their recovery; and it was found that, although the place was an excellent sanitarium for the robust or the very sick, it was unsuitable for convalescents, who could not take exercise beyond the cramped limits of the plateau.

After much discussion, Párasnáth was given up as a sanitarium in 1868. Next year the buildings had already fallen into decay, and the mountain was again abandoned to the forest and wild beasts and Jain pilgrims. The building formerly used as the officers' quarters is now utilized as a *dák* bungalow. Pilgrims flock, to the number of 10,000 annually, from distant parts of India to this remote spot—the scene of *Nirvána*, or 'beatific annihilation' of no less than 10 of the 24 deified saints, who are the objects of Jain adoration. From the last of these, Pársva or Pársvanátha, the hill, originally called Samet Sikhar, took its better known name of Párasnáth. (For a full account of the shrines and ceremonies, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 216, 217.)

Pilgrimage to Párasnáth is still as popular as ever among the Jains; and new shrines, a single one of which in white marble cost £8000, are from time to time erected. The temples lie well apart from the plateau, and the improved means of communication with Calcutta hold out a possibility of the latter being yet utilized as a small and cheaply-reached sanitarium.

Paráspur-Atá.—Two adjacent villages in Gonda District, Oudh; situated 15 miles south-west of Gonda town, on the road between Nawábganj and Colonelganj. Joint population (1881) of the two villages, 4099, namely, Hindus 3412, and Muhammadans 687. Paráspur was founded about 400 years ago by Rájá Parás Rám Kalháns, the only son of the Gonda Rájá, whose destruction by a sudden flood of the Gogra is narrated in the article on GONDA DISTRICT (*q.v.*). His descendant, the present Rájá of Paráspur, and chief of the Kalháns of Guwárich, still resides in a large mud-house to the east of the village. The Bábu of Atá, representative of a younger branch of the same family, enjoying a separate estate, lives in Atá, a

name accounted for by the following legend. Bábu Lál Sáh, the first of his branch of the family, when out hunting near Paráspur, met a *fakír* eating what appeared to be carrion. The holy man pressed him to join, and his repugnance yielded to hunger and a dread of the curse which was threatened on his refusal. To his surprise, it turned out to be excellent wheat flour (*áta*); and, at the *fakír's* bidding, a pot full of the deceptive flesh was buried under the doorway of the fort which Lál Sáh was building. On the boundary of the two villages is a flourishing school, attended by over 100 boys. Market twice a week.

Paraswárá.—Village in the highland portion of Bálághát District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 80° 20′ E., in the centre of a well-watered plateau, and surrounded by 30 thriving villages, and excellent rice-fields. Population (1881) 692. Police station.

Paratwára.—Military cantonment and civil station in Ellichpur District, Berar; situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 77° 33′ 20″ E., on the Bichan stream, about 2 miles from Ellichpur town. A force of all arms is stationed here. The cantonment is well laid out, but is not considered healthy, the site being low and too much under the hills. Schools, police station, civil jail, court with treasury, and a Government garden. Population (1881) 9445. Hindus number 6341; Muhammadans, 2876; Christians, 192; and Jains, 36; but the number varies with the strength of the force cantoned here.

Paráuna.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* PADRAUNA.

Paravanár.—River of South Arcot District, Madras; rising in lat. 11° 31′ N., and long. 79° 43′ E. After a course of about 32 miles in a generally northerly direction, and parallel to the coast, it enters the sea at Cuddalore (lat. 11° 44′ N., long. 79° 50′ 30″ E.). It is navigable for 10 miles, and is connected with the Vellár by a canal, which, begun in 1856–57, and stopped at the time of the Mutiny, was re-opened as a famine work in 1878. The Paravanár is one of the three rivers of the South Arcot District, navigable for a short distance by boats of 4 tons burthen throughout the year.

Páravúr. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 47 square miles. Páravúr *táluk* contains 89 *karas* or villages. Population (1875) 60,156; (1881) 61,966, namely, 31,487 males and 30,479 females, occupying 11,962 houses. Hindus number 41,255; Muhammadans, 2926; Christians, 17,690; and Jews, 95. The *táluk* is the most densely populated portion of Travancore State, the average density being 1318·4 persons per square mile.

Páravúr (*Párúr*).—Chief town of Páravúr Sub-division, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 10′ N., long. 76° 16′ E. A busy trading place, and formerly a military station. Population (1871) 3363,

including a number of 'White' Jews and Christians. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. At one time Páravúr town belonged to Cochin, but in 1762 it was made over to Travancore. Tipú destroyed a great part of the town.

Párbatí (*Párvatí*).—River in Kángra District, Punjab, draining Kúlu Proper; rises in Wazírí Rúpi, on the slopes of a Mid-Himálayan peak, over 20,000 feet in height. Runs in a generally westerly direction, and falls into the Beas (Biás) below Sultánpur, in lat. 31° 53′ 33″ N., and long. 77° 11′ E., after a total course of about 90 miles. For the first 50 miles the mountains on either side rise bare and uninhabited; but a little above Mánikarn, a distance of 40 miles, the valley consists of a richly timbered forest tract, in which every available acre has been brought under the plough. This portion of the valley produces particularly fine crops, and supports a comparatively dense population.

Párbatí.—A long but (except in the rains) fordable tributary of the CHAMBAL. Rises in the Vindhya hills, in lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 76° 33′ E., and after a northerly course of 220 miles past the Native States of Bhopál, Dhár, Rájgarh, Tonk, and Kotah, falls into the Chambal in lat. 25° 50′ N., long. 76° 40′ E.

Párdi.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 163 square miles, containing 82 villages. Population (1872) 51,749; (1881) 55,761, namely, 27,336 males and 28,425 females, occupying 9578 houses. Hindus number 28,401; Muhammadans, 1481; and 'others,' 25,879. Land revenue, £12,756. The region adjoins Portuguese territory, and is for the most part an undulating plain sloping westwards to the sea. The fields are, as a rule, unenclosed. The Sub-division is divided into an unfertile and a fertile region by the Kolak river. Average rainfall, 70 inches. The land was surveyed and settled in 1869–70 for a term of 30 years. In the year of survey there were 5532 holdings, with an average area of 14⅝ acres, and an average rental of £2, 4s. 10½d. Total Government area, 162 square miles. Of the Government area, 91,116 acres were returned in 1881 as cultivable, 3915 acres uncultivable waste, and 6514 acres as village sites, etc. In 1873–74, of 74,096 acres held for tillage, 29,901 acres were fallow or under grass. Total cultivated area of Government land in 1873–74, 44,195 acres. Principal crops—grain crops, 32,022 acres; pulses, 7378 acres; oil-seeds, 7428 acres; fibres, 325; and miscellaneous, 809 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 criminal court; regular police, 59 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 220.

Párdi.—Head-quarters of Párdi Sub-division, Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 31′ E., long. 72° 59′ N. Population (1872) 4545. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881. Post-office; dispensary.

Parell.—Northern suburb of Bombay city; once the favourite site for the country houses of the European merchants, and still containing

the residence of the Governor of Bombay. Mr. J. M. Maclean, in his *Guide to Bombay*, gives the following account of the history of this building, the only one of any special interest in the suburb:—'At the date of Fryer's visit to Bombay, about 200 years ago, a church and convent, belonging to the Jesuits, stood on the site of the present Government House at Parell. The principal establishment of the Society was at Bandora, at the other side of the Mahim Strait, where the present slaughter-houses have been erected. Fryer describes the college that stood there as "not inferior as to the building, nor much unlike those, of our universities." It was, moreover, defended like a fortress, with 7 cannon, besides small arms. The Superior possessed such extensive influence that his mandates were respectfully attended to in the surrounding country. When Bombay was ceded to the English, the Bandora College claimed much land and various rights in the island. On the claim being disallowed, the Jesuits threatened a resort to arms, and went so far as to assist the adventurer Cooke in his impudent attempt to raise a force for the capture of Bombay. Their crowning act of hostility, however, was the support they gave the Sídí in his successful invasion of the island in 1689–90. They were suspected of first suggesting to him the practicability of invading Bombay, and they certainly had supplied his army with provisions. As a punishment, when the war was over, all their property on the island, including the monastery and lands at Parell, was confiscated. It would appear that it was not till 1720 that the church at Parell was alienated from its original use. In that year the Jesuits and their sympathizers were expelled from the island, and the spiritual oversight of the Roman Catholic congregations was transferred by the English governor to the Carmelites (*Bombay Quarterly Review*, iii. pp. 61, 62). Bishop Heber states that the building afterwards fell into the hands of a Pársí, from whom it was purchased by the English officials about the year 1765.

'The lower storey of the desecrated church forms the present Government House; the upper storey has been added since the building became Government property. The outside of Parell House is plain, if not ugly; but the interior, so far as the State rooms are concerned, is handsome, the dining-room on the ground floor, and the drawing-room above, being 80 feet long, and broad in proportion. The garden at the back is spacious, and has a fine terrace, shaded by noble trees. There used to be a willow at Parell, grown from a slip cut from the tree on Napoleon's grave at St. Helena. Mr. W. Hornby (1776) was the first governor who took up his residence at Parell. The original building was enlarged and embellished by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone (1819–27). In 1737, the Jesuits' College at Bandora, before referred to, was destroyed by the Portuguese to prevent its falling into the hands of the Maráthás, who in that year invaded Salsette.'

The present European cemetery at Parell was opened as a botanical garden in 1830, and was converted into a cemetery in 1867. It lies under Flag Staff hill, sheltered by pines on either side. By Great Indian Peninsula Railway, Parell is distant 4 miles from the Bombay terminus.

Parendá.—Old fortress in Naldrúg District of Haidarábád (Nizám's Dominions); situated in lat. 18° 16′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 30′ 18″ E., on the frontier of Ahmadnagar District. Parendá is one of the many forts erected by Máhmud Khwájá Gáwán, the celebrated minister of the Bahmani king, Muhammad Sháh II. After the capture of Ahmadnagar by the Mughals in 1605, the capital of the Nizám Sháhi kingdom was removed to Parendá for a short period. Parendá was unsuccessfully besieged by the Emperor Sháh Jahán's general, Azam Khán, in 1630, and by Prince Sháh Shujá in 1633. The greater portion of the town is now in ruins, but the fortifications are in good order.

Parganás, The Twenty-four.—District of Bengal.—*See* TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS.

Párghát.—Old pass or route across the Western Gháts leading from Satára District to Kolába, Bombay Presidency. Two villages, Pár Pár or Pár Proper and Pet Pár, situated 5 miles west of Malcolmpet and immediately south of Partábgarh, give their name to and mark the old route into the Konkan called the Párghát, which goes straight over the hill below Bombay Point, and winds up a very steep incline with so many curves that it was named by the British the Corkscrew Pass. Passing through the two Párs, the further line of the Sahyadri is descended by an equally steep path to the village of Párghát in Kolába District. This route was maintained practicable for cattle and the artillery of the period from very early times, and *chaukis* or toll stations for the levy of transit duties as well as for defence were stationed at various points. Afzul Khán, the Muhammadan general of the king of Bijápur, brought his forces by this pass to the famous interview at Partábgarh, where he was murdered by Sivají. Until the building of the Kumbhárli road in 1864 and the Fitzgerald pass road in 1876, the Párghát was the only highway leading to the Konkan.

Pariar.—*Parganá* in Unao *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Safipur, on the east by Unao *parganá*, on the south by Sikandarpur, and on the west by the Ganges, which separates it from Cawnpur District. A small *parganá*, with an area of 36 square miles, of which 19 are cultivated. The soil is chiefly loam and clay, and produces wheat and barley of the first quality. Watered by the Kalyáni, a small tributary of the Ganges. Population (1881) 14,560, namely, 14,120 Hindus and 440 Muhammadans. The principal form of tenure is *zamíndárí*. Government land revenue, £2857, or an average assessment of 2s. 6½d. per acre. Hindu tradition alleges that it was

here that Sítá was abandoned by Ráma, after he had recovered her from Rávana; hence the name of the *parganá*, corrupted from the Sanskrit into Pariar. The present *parganá* was formed in 1785, out of 28 villages taken from Sikandarpur and Safipur.

Pariar.—Town in Unao *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Pariar *parganá;* situated 12 miles west of Unao town, in lat. 26° 37′ 45″ N., and long. 80° 21′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 2254, namely, 2171 Hindus and 83 Musalmáns. The town is considered sacred by the Hindus, on account of its legendary association with the events of the *Rámáyana*. A great bathing fair, held on the occasion of the *Kártik Puranmáshí*, is attended by 100,000 persons.

Paríchhatgarh.—Ancient town in Muwána *tahsíl*, Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated half-way between Muwána and Kithor, 14 miles from Meerut city. The fort round which the town is built lays claim to great antiquity, and tradition ascribes its construction to Parikshit, grandson of Arjun, one of the five Pándava brethren in the *Mahábhárata*, to whom is also ascribed the foundation of the town. The fort was restored by Rájá Nain Singh, on the rise of the Gújar power in the last century. It was dismantled in 1857, and is now used as a police station. Population (1881) 5182, namely, Hindus, 4339; Muhammadans, 842; and 'others,' 1. The police and conservancy arrangements of the town are met by a small house-tax. The houses are chiefly of mud, with some good brick houses and shops in the *bázár*. Large weekly market held every Monday, and numerously attended by inhabitants of neighbouring villages. The Anúpshahr branch of the Ganges canal runs close to the town. Post-office, village school, police station, and canal bungalow.

Párikud.—Group of islands lying to the east of the CHILKA LAKE, Bengal, which have silted up from behind, and are now partially joined to the narrow ridge of land which separates the Chilká from the sea. Salt-making is largely carried on in the Párikud islands by the process of solar evaporation. The manufacture begins at the commencement of the hot season, in the latter half of March. In the first place, a little canal is dug from the Chilká Lake, with sets of broad, shallow tanks on either side, running out at right angles from the canal in rows of four. Each tank is 75 feet square, by from 18 inches to 3 feet deep. On the first day of manufacture, the brackish water of the lake is admitted by the canal into the first tank of each of the sets of rows. Here it stands for 24 hours; and as the depth of this first series of tanks is only 18 inches, evaporation goes on very rapidly. Next morning, the brine is transferred from tank No. 1 to tank No. 2 in each of the sets of rows. Tank No. 2 is 24 inches deep; and each successive one deepens by 6 inches until the brine reaches No. 4,

which is 3 feet deep. The water stands for a day in each, gradually thickening as it evaporates. On the fourth day it is transferred to tank No. 4; and on the morning of the fifth, some of the brine is ladled from that tank into an adjoining network of very shallow pools each pool being 5 feet square by only 6 inches deep. Here it stands during the intense heat of the day. By the afternoon the manufacture is complete, and the salt is raked out of the network of shallow pools The out-turn of a Párikud salt-working is about 15 tons the first week; and if the manufacture goes on without interruption for a fortnight, it may amount to as much as 80 tons for the 15 days. A shower of rain stops the whole process, and necessitates its being begun afresh.

Parkáil.—Mountain peak in Bashahr State, Punjab; a summit of the ridge in Kunáwár, separating the Spiti from the Sutlej (Satlaj) basin. Thornton states that it lies 6 or 7 miles north-east of the confluence of these two rivers, in lat. 31° 54′ N., and long. 77° 46′ E. Elevation above sea-level, 22,488 feet.

Párkar.—Town in Nagar Párkar *táluk* of the Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* NAGAR PARKAR.

Parlá Kimedi.—Ancient *zamíndárí* (landed estate) in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; the largest in the District, extending over an area of 764 square miles, including 354 square miles of *máliyas* or hill country. Population of lowland tract (1871) 227,482; (1881) 240,980, occupying 48,097 houses and 723 villages. Hindus in 1881 numbered 240,266; Muhammadans, 497; Christians, 118; and 'others,' 99. The *máliya* tract contains (1881) 342 villages, and a population of 39,152, namely, 20,218 males and 18,934 females, occupying 8936 houses. Hindus number 38,952, chiefly Savars; and Muhammadans, 200. The estate pays a *peshkash* (fixed quit-rent) of £8782, the proprietary income being returned at £53,274, including interest on funded money.

The *zamíndárs* claim descent from the royal house of Orissa Gajapattis (Gangavansa), and take precedence in the District. Eleven hill chiefs called *Bissoís*, and 23 smaller lairds called *Doras*, owe feudal allegiance and pay tribute to the Rájá.

The British first came into contact with the family in 1768, when Colonel Peach led a detachment against Náráyan Deo, the *zamíndár*, and defeated him at Jalmúr. In 1799, the Company temporarily assumed control of the estate for breach of engagement. Restored to the family, this difficult country was the scene of continued disturbances for many years. In 1816 it was ravaged by Pindárís; and in 1819 it was found necessary to send a special commissioner, Mr. Thackeray, to quell a rising. Again, in 1833, a field force was sent into Parlá Kimedi, under General Taylor, and it was not till 1835 that peace was restored. Until 1856–57 no further disturbance took

place, but in that year the employment of a small body of regulars was again necessitated to restore order.

In 1830 the *zamíndári* was placed under the Court of Wards, owing to the imbecility of the proprietor, and has since continued under Government management. The estate is managed by the Assistant Collector, who resides at Parlá Kimedi. The country is hilly, with numerous fertile valleys. The chief product is rice. A Survey Settlement has been in progress since 1880. Good roads and extended cultivation have greatly increased the value of the estate.—*See* KIMEDI.

Parlá Kimedi.—Chief town of the Parlá Kimedi *zamíndári* in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 84° 8′ E. Population (1881) 10,812, namely, 5186 males and 5626 females, occupying 2189 houses. Hindus number 10,621; Muhammadans, 188; and Christians, 3. The town is composed of the two villages, Parlá-kasba and Chervuthiguva-kasba. A palace is being built for the *zamíndár* at a cost of £40,000.

Parlákot.—*Zamíndári* or chiefship in the extreme north-west of Bastar State, Central Provinces. Comprising 67 villages; area, 500 square miles. Population (1881) 3455, dwelling in 638 houses. Chief village, Parlákot; lat. 19° 47′ N., long. 80° 43′ E.

Parmagúdi (or *Parambakudi*).—Busy weaving town in Rámnád *zamíndári*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 31′ N., and long. 78° 42′ E. Population (1881) 9287, occupying 1148 houses. Hindus number 8392; Muhammadans, 783; and Christians, 112. Post-office.

Parna.—Agricultural village in Panáhat *tahsíl*, Agra District; situated in lat. 26° 53′ N., and long. 78° 46′ 32° E., on the right bank of the Jumna, 52 miles south-east from Agra city, and 10 miles west of Bah, the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 2856.

Parnasala. — A celebrated shrine in Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated about 20 miles from Bhadrachalam town.

Párner.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 779 square miles, containing 122 villages. Population (1872) 82,422; (1881) 73,701, namely, 37,190 males and 36,511 females| Hindus number 68,442; Muhammadans, 2734; and 'others,' 2525. The surface of Párner is very irregular and hilly, consisting of a series of plateaux or table-lands of various heights. The highest is the Kánhur or central plateau formed by the widening out of the summit of one of the spurs of the Sah, which traverses the Sub-division from north-west to south-east. The average height of the central plateau is about 2800 feet above sea-level, though there are points on it three hundred feet higher. As might be expected from the diversified nature of the surface, the soil of Párner is of various kinds. On the whole, the water-supply is fairly good. Many of the smaller streams have a perennial flow

Sixteen miles of the Ahmadnagar-Poona high road lie in Párner. The Dhond-Manmád State Railway skirts the south-east corner, and has one station in the Sub-division. The manufactures are few, consisting of coarsely woven turbans, cotton cloth, and woollen blankets. Of 217,629 acres, the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82, grain crops occupied 180,472 acres, of which 109,447 were under *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 58,884 under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 26,704 acres; oil-seeds, 8972 acres; fibres, 191 acres, the whole under hemp (Crotalaria juncea); and miscellaneous crops, 1290 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; 1 police circle (*thána*); regular police, 34 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 218. Land revenue, £15,417.

Párner.—Town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Párner Sub-division. Lat. 19° N., long. 74° 30′ E. Situated 20 miles south-west of Ahmadnagar town and 15 miles west of Sárola station on the Dhond-Manmád State Railway. Population (1881) 4058. Párner contains numerous money-lenders, chiefly Márwáris, with a bad name for greed and fraud. In 1874–75, disturbances arose between the husbandmen and the money-lenders. The villagers placed the money-lenders in a state of social outlawry, refusing to work for them, to draw water, supply necessaries, or shave them. The watchfulness of the police saved Párner from a riot. Weekly market on Sundays, and post-office.

Párola.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 56′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 14′ 30″ E., 22 miles east of Dhuliá, and 22 miles west of the Mhasáwár station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 12,354, namely, 6114 males and 6240 females. Hindus number 9997; Muhammadans, 1743; Jains, 468; and 'others,' 146. Párola is a municipality, with an income of £387 in 1883–84; incidence of taxation per head, 5d. It is said to have been raised by its proprietor, Hari Sadásiva Dámothar, from the position of a small village of 50 houses to that of a walled town. He is also said to have built, about 1727, the spacious fort, one of the finest architectural remains of the kind in Khándesh. It must have been at one time a very strong place; it is surrounded by a moat, and the entrance was formerly protected by a drawbridge and large flanking towers. During the Mutiny in 1857, the proprietors proved disloyal, and their estate was confiscated, the town being taken possession of by the British Government, and the fort dismantled. A considerable trade is carried on in cattle, cotton, *lugdás* (women's robes), and grain. Post-office; and dispensary, which relieved 7576 patients in 1883; and 4 schools with 451 pupils in 1883–84.

Parone.—Guaranteed chiefship under the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency of Central India, and a feudatory of Gwalior. The ruling family are

of ancient lineage, being descended from the family of the Kachwa Ajodhya Rájputs, and were formerly Thákurs of Narwár. Dáulat Ráo Sindhia deprived Madhú Singh of Narwár of his hereditary possessions, and the latter took to plundering in Sindhia's territories. In 1818, through the mediation of the Resident at Sindhia's court, the estate of Parone and six villages were granted to Madhú Singh under British protection, on condition of his promising to protect Sindhia's territory from robbers. His successor, Rájá Mán Singh, joined the mutineers in 1857, but surrendered in 1859 on condition of a free pardon and a suitable maintenance. Mán Singh's former possessions were consequently restored to him under guarantee. For his subsequent services in connection with the capture of the rebel Tántia Topí, Mán Singh received an annual allowance of £100, as equivalent to the value of a *jágír* of one village. The chief owns 34 villages, containing a population in 1881 of 7328, and yielding a revenue of about £1200. Hindus number 7152; Muhammadans, 156; Jains, 4; and aborigines, 16. Mán Singh died in January 1883, and will be succeeded by his son Gajandar Singh, during whose minority the affairs of the State are superintended by the Political Assistant at Gúna.

Parone town lies in lat. 24° 59′ N., and long. 76° 57′ E. It contains but a small portion of arable land, and more resembles a wilderness than the residence of a chief. The fort walls were destroyed by the British troops during the Mutiny, and have never been rebuilt.

Parporí (or *Parpondi*).—Rich and well-cultivated *zamíndárí* or petty chiefship attached to Drúg *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; comprising an area of 32 square miles, with 24 villages and 1972 houses. Total population (1881) 6950, namely, males 3457, and females 3493; average density of population, 217 persons per square mile. The chief is a Gond. Principal village, Parporí, in lat. 21° 35′ N., and long. 81° 16′ E.

Párseoní.—Town in Rámtek *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 22′ N., and long. 79° 11′ E., 18 miles from Nágpur town. Population (1881) 4039, namely, Hindus, 3688; Muhammadans, 223; Jains, 100; and non-Hindu aborigines, 28. Manufactures, coarse cloth and pottery. The weekly market supplies the hill tracts of Bheogarh. The town contains two fine temples; and *pán* (betel-leaf) is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood.

Parshádepur.—*Parganá* in Salon *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated north of the Sai river. Area, 54 square miles, of which 28 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 32,026, namely, 29,766 Hindus and 2260 Musalmáns. Of the 60 villages comprising the *parganá*, 8 are held under *zamíndárí*, 24 under *tálukdárí*, and 28 under *pattidárí* tenure. The tract originally formed part of the *jágír*

estate of the Bahu Begam, and was constituted a separate *parganá* in 1783.

Parshádepur (or *Anhora Rámpur*).—Village in Salon *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Parshádepur *parganá*; situated 20 miles from Rái Bareli town, and 1 mile north of the Sai river. Population (1881) 1232, namely, 1036 Hindus and 136 Muhammadans. Five Hindu temples and 9 Muhammadan mosques. Market. Vernacular school.

Partábganj.—*Parganá* in Nawábganj *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Fatehpur *tahsíl*, on the east by Rám Sanehi Ghát *tahsíl*, on the south by Satrikh *parganá*, and on the west by Nawábganj *parganá*. Area, 56 square miles, or 35,751 acres, of which 24,288 acres are under cultivation. Population (1881) 33,448, namely, Hindus, 27,416; Muhammadans, 6031; and 'others,' 1. The 54 villages comprising the *parganá* are held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 26; *zamíndárí*, 15; and *pattidárí*, 13. Intersected by the metalled road to Faizábád (Fyzábád). Five schools, two police posts, and a post-office. Government land revenue, £6422, or at the rate of 5s. 2½d. per acre.

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—British District in the Rái Bareli Division of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 25° 34′ and 26° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 22′ and 82° 29′ 45″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rái Bareli and Sultánpur Districts, and on the east, south, and west by Jaunpur and Allahábád Districts of the North-Western Provinces. The Ganges, flowing from south-west to south-east, forms the western boundary line, while the Gúmti at the opposite extremity marks the eastern boundary for a few miles. The District has recently undergone considerable diminution of area, by the transfer in 1869 of Salon and Parshádepur *parganás* to Rái Bareli. Prior to these changes, Partábgarh District contained an area of 1733 square miles. Present area, 1436 square miles. Population (1881) 847,047. The administrative head-quarters are at BELA, 4 miles from Partábgarh town.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Partábgarh is that of a richly wooded and fertile plain, here and there relieved by gentle undulations, and in the vicinity of the rivers and streams broken into ravines. The southern portion of the District in the neighbourhood of the Ganges is perhaps more densely wooded than other parts. Barren tracts of uncultivable land, impregnated with saline efflorescence (*reh*), are met with in places, but do not extend over any considerable area. For the most part, Partábgarh is under rich and varied cultivation, dotted with neatly built villages and hamlets, which are surrounded by fine groves of mango, *mahuá*, or other trees. The soil is light, but

at the same time very fertile. The prevailing kind is that known as *domát*, a mixture of clay and sand in about equal parts. Where the sand largely preponderates, the *domát* degenerates into poor, sterile *bhúr*, found especially in the uplands near the Ganges, Sai and Gúmti. The stiff and rich loamy soil styled *matiár* occurs chiefly in the vicinity of large swamps or *jhíls*.

The one important river of Partábgarh, properly speaking, is the Sai, as the Ganges and Gúmti nowhere enter the District, but only impinge on its western and eastern boundary respectively. The Sai rises in Hardoi, and after crossing Rái Bareli District flows through Partábgarh in an exceedingly tortuous south-easterly course, and finally falls into the Gúmti in Jaunpur District. This river runs chiefly between high banks at a considerable depth below the level of the surrounding country. It is navigable during the rains, when it swells into a considerable stream; but in the hot season it runs nearly dry. It receives several tributary rivulets, both on its north and south bank; and in general the line of drainage is towards this river. There are many natural lakes or *jhíls* which in the rains measure several miles in circumference. They average about 3 feet in depth, but are practically of no use for navigation.

The only mineral products are salt, saltpetre, and *kankar* or nodular limestone. The manufacture of salt and saltpetre from the saliferous tracts is prohibited by Government.

Tigers and leopards are hardly ever met with in Partábgarh; but wolves still abound in the ravines and grass lands, and frequently commit depredations on the flocks of the shepherds. A reward is paid for their destruction, and their numbers are yearly diminishing. *Nílgái*, wild cattle, hog, and monkeys do much damage to the crops. Snakes are not numerous. Small game, such as hares, pea-fowl, partridges, snipe, quail, geese, and ducks, abound.

Population.—The population of Partábgarh District, as at present constituted, after the transfer of *parganás* Salon and Parshádepur to Rái Bareli District, is returned in the Oudh Census Report for 1869 at 782,681 persons, residing in 2209 villages or towns and 156,250 houses. The Census of 1881 disclosed a population of 847,047, showing an increase of population in the twelve years from 1869 to 1881 of 64,366, or 8·2 per cent. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1436·5 square miles, with 2214 towns and villages, and 194,308 houses. Total population, 847,047, namely, males 420,730, and females 426,317. Density of population, 589 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·54; persons per village, 382; houses per square mile, 135; persons per house, 4·3. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 168,380, and girls

152,876; total children, 321,256, or 37·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years of age and upwards, males 252,350, and females 273,441; total adults, 525,791, or 62·1 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population consists of —Hindus, 763,054, or 90·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 83,944, or 9·9 per cent.; Christians, 48; and Pársí, 1. Of the Hindu population, about 70 per cent. are cultivators, which proportion is pretty evenly maintained throughout the District. The higher castes, including Bráhmans (119,096), Rájputs (57,628), Vaisyas (20,797), and Káyasths (9113), form nearly a fourth of the total population. The Bráhmans are the most numerous caste in the District. In the Mánikpur and Bihár *parganás* there are a great many families of spurious Bráhmans, whose ancestors belonged to the lower castes of Hindus, and were invested with the sacred thread by Rájá Mánik Chand, a brother of Jai Chand, the last Hindu king of Kanauj. Of the lower castes, Ahírs (104,897), Kurmís (93,518), Chamárs (87,803), Pásís (51,569), Gadárias (37,091), and Kachhís (31,577) predominate. The Kurmís and Kachhís, who are the best cultivating castes, are almost to a man agriculturists; and in regard to the number of the former, Partábgarh ranks third among the Oudh Districts. The majority of the Ahírs, Chamárs, Pásís, and Gadárias are also cultivators. There are more Lohárs or blacksmiths (15,845) in Partábgarh than in any other District in Oudh, but comparatively few are engaged in agricultural pursuits. Loniás are also a numerous (12,109) caste. They are salt-makers by hereditary profession; now that their normal occupation has gone, they have been forced to seek new employment, and are almost exclusively cultivators. The other important Hindu castes include the following—Telís, oil-sellers, 14,682; Nais, barbers, 12,474; Kalwárs, spirit-sellers and distillers, 11,030; Káhárs, palanquin-bearers and domestic servants, 10,981; Kumbhárs, potters, 10,513; Bhurjís, grain parchers, 9105; Dhobís, washermen, 8264; Bháts, genealogists, 5610; Mallahs, boatmen, 5102; and Tamulís, betel-growers, 5100.

The Muhammadans, who number 83,994, are chiefly found in Mánikpur, Partábgarh, and Bihár *parganás*, and are fewest in Dhingwas and Rámpur *parganás;* they are nearly evenly divided between agricultural and non-agricultural, the former class slightly preponderating. The most respected classes are Shaikhs and Patháns. The Muhammadan converts or descendants of converts from higher castes of Hindus number only 225. The lower classes, who for the most part pursue some distinctive trade, include the Juláha or weaver, the Dhunia or cotton-corder, the Darzí or tailor and tent-maker, the Manihár or lac-bangle maker, and the Kunjra or fruiterer.

Town and Rural Population; Occupations.—The population of Partábgarh District is entirely rural, the only place with a population

exceeding 5000 being the civil station of Belá or MacAndrewganj, as it is also called after a former District officer (population in 1881, 5851), which is also the sole municipality. Of the 2214 towns and villages comprising the District, 867 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 845 from two hundred to five hundred; 369 from five hundred to a thousand; 113 from one to two thousand; 16 from two to three thousand; 3 from three to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including Government servants of all grades, 3205; (2) domestic servants, 322; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 2102; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 203,978; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 34,265; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 176,858.

Agriculture.—There are two principal harvests in the year, the *rabí* or spring crop and the *kharíf* or autumn crop, the latter being subdivided into three minor harvests, known as *bhadoi*, *kuári*, and *aghání*, after the months in which the several crops ripen. The principal grain crop is barley, which yields an average out-turn of about 16 *maunds*, or 11⅔ cwts. per acre. Wheat, both the white and red variety, is largely grown in Partábgarh. It requires abundant irrigation, and the fields are flooded at least three times during the cold season. The average out-turn of wheat from all kinds of land throughout the District is set down at 19·71 bushels per acre. Four varieties of rice are cultivated, known as *kuári dhán*, *jethi dhán*, *sáthi dhán*, and *jarhan dhán*. The principal rice-growing localties are the low-lying lands in Patti *tahsíl*, and the neighbourhood of the large *jhíls* and swamps in Kúnda *tahsíl*. The yield of the different sorts of rice varies a good deal, from 9 or 10 *maunds*, or from 6½ to 7⅓ cwts. per acre for *sáthi* rice, to double that out-turn for *jethi* rice. The other food crops are gram, peas, *arhar*, *joár*, and *bájra*, the three first being most largely cultivated. Sugar-cane cultivation has been rapidly extending of late years, and yields a greater profit than is obtained from grain crops. Poppy is cultivated under the superintendence of the Opium Department. Miscellaneous crops include tobacco of excellent quality, indigo, fibres, *pán*, etc.

By far the greater portion of the cultivated area is *do-fasli* or two-crop land. The *kharíf* crop is no sooner off the ground than preparations are at once made for sowing the *rabí*. A heavy *kharíf* crop, like *joár* or *bájra*, is followed by a light spring crop, such as peas or barley. This is repeated a second year; in the third year no autumn crop is sown, but the land is well worked up, and prepared for wheat or sugar-cane. The number of ploughings the land requires for different crops varies very much. For instance,

wheat is held to require, on an average, 18 or 20 ploughings; tobacco, sugar-cane, peas, and barley, 15 or 16 ploughings; poppy, 12 ploughings; cotton, 8; and so on. Three or four ploughings are sufficient for the autumn crop. Irrigation is extensively carried on, and manure is made use of wherever procurable. Rents have steadily increased since the introduction of British rule, and still have a tendency to rise. The average rate for all varieties of land, over an area of 100 villages, was found in 1868 to be 3s. 1½d. per local *bíghá*, equal to ⅝ths of an English acre. Rents in kind largely prevailed prior to annexation, and were chiefly, if not entirely, levied on poor and unirrigated lands, where the produce was more or less precarious, in the proportion of one-half. Now, however, they have been almost everywhere commuted into money rents. Skilled labourers have much improved in circumstances of late years; but this has not been the case with the agricultural classes, who are paid in kind at about the same rates that prevailed under native rule. The average daily payment for out-door agricultural labour is 3 lbs. of grain for a man, and 2½ lbs for women or children. The District is mostly held under *tálukdárí* tenure, there being 1702 *tálukdárí* villages, against 512 held either as *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, or *bháyáchára*.

Means of Communication, etc.—Partábgarh District is now well opened up by roads. Exclusive of 22½ miles of the imperial road connecting the military stations of Faizábád (Fyzábád) and Allahábád, which passes through Belá, the civil station, there are 342 miles of good second-class roads. These have been entirely bridged, save at four points, where the Sai, Sakrui, Pareya, and Bhakláhi respectively would require large and solid masonry bridges to withstand the force of the current in the rains. The four principal lines of country road are the following:—(1) From Belá to Rái Bareli town, running 44 miles through Partábgarh District; (2) from Belá to Guthni Ghát on the Ganges, 39 miles; (3) from Belá to Patti, 15½ miles; (4) from Belá to Badsháhpur in Jaunpur District, 21 miles, of which 20 miles lie within Partábgarh. Water communication is afforded by 64 miles of navigable rivers. No line of railway runs through the District. Four large ferries are maintained on the Ganges, and two on the Gúmti. Ferries for foot-passengers across the Sai are kept up by the *zamíndárs* in the rainy months, the stream being easily fordable at most places during eight months of the year. Wheeled carriage is scarce and difficult to procure. Great reluctance is everywhere manifested by the owners to hiring out their carts; and when it is known that troops are on the move, and that carriage will be impressed, the carts are frequently taken to pieces and concealed in houses, the bullocks at the same time being sent to a neighbouring village. Bullocks, buffaloes, and ponies afford the ordinary means of transport.

Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—Partábgarh is a great grain-exporting District. Tobacco, sugar, molasses, opium, oil, *ghí*, cattle, sheep, hides, and horns also form important articles of export. The imports consist mainly of salt, cotton, metals and hardware, country cloth, and dyes. English stuffs and piece-goods are also becoming every year more common in the local *bázárs.* The exports of grain in 1872 were reported at 349,000 *maunds*, value £79,000, the other items making up the total value of exports to £97,700. The imports in 1872 were valued at £40,800, cotton and salt forming the principal items. In 1873, the exports amounted in value to £105,562, of which £65,517 was returned as the value of 305,671 *maunds* of grain; the imports in the same year amounted in value to £40,569. Trade returns are not available for later years. The principal market towns and villages are the following:—(1) Lálganj, 4 miles south of Bihár on the Allahábád road; a numerously attended bi-weekly market, with trade in cattle, English piece-goods, and country fabrics; annual value of sales, about £30,000: (2) Derwa *bázár* in Sabalgarh, a grain mart twice a week; annual sales, about £15,000: (3) Jalesarganj in Dharupur village; trade in English and country cloth, sweetmeats, grain, matting, etc.; annual value, £10,000: (4) MacAndrewganj, the *bázár* of the civil station, a thriving and rapidly increasing mart; trade in grain and cloth to the extent of £6000. Other markets are Kálákankar, Gadwárá, Prithwíganj, and Nawábganj Báwan Burji. Several local fairs are held on occasions of religious festivals, at which trade is also carried on. Sugar of excellent quality is manufactured at Partábgarh town. Glass beads, bracelets, water-bottles, etc. are made at Sawánsa and a few other places in Patti *tahsíl.* The only other manufacture is that of woollen blankets woven by shepherds from the fleece of their flocks, which are bought up by petty traders from the North-Western Provinces.

Administration.—Partábgarh is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 5 or 6 Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 4 *tahsíldárs.* The total revenue, imperial and local, of the District in 1871–72 was £111,110, of which the land-tax contributed £86,261. The expenditure in the same year amounted to £24,490. By 1883–84 the total revenue of Partábgarh District had risen to £175,735, of which £98,219 was derived from the land-tax. The District contains 10 civil and revenue, and 11 magisterial courts. For the protection of person and property there is a regular District and municipal police of a total strength of 402 men; maintained, in 1883, at a total cost of £4355, of which £4206 was paid from provincial revenues, and £149 from other sources. There is also a village watch or rural police, numbering 2557 in 1883, and maintained by the landholders and villagers at an estimated cost of £2765. Total police

force 2959, or one policeman to every ·48 square mile of District area, or one to every 286 of the population. Total estimated cost, £7120, or £4, 19s. 1d. for every square mile of area, or 2⅛d. per head of the population. The average number of prisoners in jail in 1883 was 192, of whom 16 were females. Education is afforded by a high school at the civil station, and 89 other inspected schools in the District, attended on March 31, 1884, by 3604 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 3069 boys and 47 girls as under instruction; besides 14,443 males and 215 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. There is a charitable dispensary at the head-quarters town.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is healthy, with a mean range of temperature of 30° F. The average rainfall for the 14 years ending 1881 was 38·5 inches, the fall in the latter year being 40·3 inches. No thermometrical returns are available. Of endemic diseases, intermittent fever, skin affections, and ophthalmia are the most common. In the cold season of 1868–69, the District suffered from an epidemic of small-pox, immediately followed by a severe and general outbreak of cholera. These epidemics were rendered more virulent by the distress which resulted from the total failure of the autumn harvest of 1868 and the partial failure of the spring crops of 1869. The vital statistics for 1883 show a total of 22,578 registered deaths in that year, equal to a rate of 26·65 per thousand. The average death-rate for the previous five years was 29·31 per thousand. Fevers are the great cause of mortality, and in 1883 deaths from these diseases amounted to 21·82 per thousand, that from all other causes being only returned at 4·83 per thousand. Intermittent fever is most prevalent at the close of the rainy season, and generally disappears with the cool weather and westerly winds of November. Though primarily caused by local malaria, this disease is intensified by exposure alternately to cold, damp, and the hot sun, and by the poorer classes being unable to obtain sufficiently nourishing food. [For further information regarding Partábgarh, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Oudh*, published by authority (Government Press, Allahábád, 1877), vol. ii. pp. 65–148. Also the *Settlement Report of Partábgarh District*, by Captain W. E. Forbes (Lucknow, 1877); the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports.]

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Partábgarh District, Oudh, lying between 25° 42′ 30″ and 26° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 81° 33′ 15″ and 82° 6′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sultánpur and Kádipur *tahsíls*, on the east and south by Jaunpur and Allahábád Districts of the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by Patti *tahsíl*. This *tahsíl* comprises the two *parganás* of Partábgarh and Ateha. Area, 434 square miles, of which 233 were cultivated at the time of the revenue survey of the District.

Population (1869) 264,630; (1881) 280,685, namely, males 138,003, and females 142,682, showing an increase of population in thirteen years of 16,055, or 6·07 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 250,315; Muhammadans, 30,326; and 'others,' 44. Of the 702 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 537 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 120 from five hundred to a thousand; 44 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Total Government revenue at the time of survey, £32,246; estimated rental paid by cultivators, £64,492. In 1883, Partábgarh *tahsíl* contained 2 civil and 6 magisterial courts, including District head-quarters; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 56 men; rural police (*chaukídárs*), 660.

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh; situated in the south-east of the District, and extending for many miles along both sides of the river Sai. Area, 355 square miles, of which 192 were under cultivation at the time of survey. Population (1881) 235,533, of whom 208,041 are returned as Hindus and 27,492 as Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £26,445. Of the 634 villages comprising the *parganá*, 508 are held by Sombansi Rájputs, who form the dominant caste among the population.

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh; situated on the metalled road to Allahábád, 4 miles from Belá, the civil head-quarters of the District, 36 miles from Allahábád, and 24 from Sultánpur, in lat. 25° 53′ 25″ N., and long. 81° 59′ 10″ E. Founded in 1617–18 by Rájá Partáb Singh, who named it after himself. The fort built by the Rájá is still extant. It was seized by the native Government about ninety years ago, but after annexation was sold to Rájá Ajít Singh, a relative of the ancient owner. It was of considerable size, but its outer walls and flanking works were destroyed after the Mutiny; an inner keep and little walled garden still remain. Population (1881) 5851, namely, Hindus, 3870; Muhammadans, 1944; Christians, 36; 'other,' 1. Municipal income (1883–84), £592, of which £368 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. Six mosques and four Hindu temples. Sugar of good quality is manufactured here. Government high school and normal school.

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—Native State in Rájputána under the political superintendence of the Mewár Agency; lying between 23° 17′ and 24° 18′ N. lat., and between 74° 31′ and 75° 3′ E. long. Bounded on the north-west and north by Mewár (Udaipur); on the north-east and east by Sindhia's Districts of Nimach and Mandisor, and the States of Jáora, Piploda, and Ratlam; and on the south-west by Bánswára. Its extreme length from north to south is 67 miles, and extreme breadth from east to west 33 miles, with a total area of about 1460 square miles, and a population, as ascertained by the

Census of 1881, of 79,568. Of the total population, 75,050 were returned as Hindus, 4243 as Muhammadans, 270 Bhíls, 1 Christian, and 4 'others.' Classified according to sex, the males numbered 41,118, the females 38,180. The sex of the Bhíls were not determined. The State contains 1 town and 568 villages. Number of houses, 18,622; number of persons per square mile, 54·49. The total revenue is about £60,000, of which about £25,000 is enjoyed by feudatories, and £5688 is paid as tribute to the British Government and accounted for by it to Holkar.

The country is mostly open except in the north-west, which portion is wild and hilly, and inhabited almost entirely by Bhíls. Here the hills attain an elevation of 1900 feet. To the south of Deolia is an old fortified hill called Junágarh, with a small tank and well at the summit. Little is known about the geology of Partábgarh, nor have any minerals been found in the State, but good stone quarries are said to have been formerly worked at Dakor, near Deolia. The climate is generally good and the temperature moderate; the average rainfall is about 32 inches. The State possesses no particular forest tracts nor rivers of any importance. There are a few good-sized tanks, of which one at Ráipur, called Sarpatta, is the largest. Water is generally found within 40 or 50 feet of the surface. Grain, opium, and country cloth are the principal articles of trade. No made roads exist in the State, but the country roads—to Nimach, 32 miles to the north; Mandesar, 19 miles to the east; and Jáora, 35 miles to the south-east through the open country—are fair of their kind. A cart-road to Bánswára, through the Kangarh *ghát*, or pass, has been opened out.

The Mahárávwal of Partábgarh is a Sesodiá Rájput, descended from a junior branch of the Udaipur house. From the time of the establishment of the Maráthá power in Málwá, the Chief of Partábgarh had paid tribute to Holkar. In 1818, Partábgarh was taken under the protection of the British Government. Under the 4th article of the Treaty of Mandesar, the British Government acquired a right to the tribute levied by Holkar from Partábgarh; but, in consideration of the political influence lost by Holkar under that treaty, it was resolved to account to him annually for the amount of the tribute, which is therefore paid over from the British treasury. The late chief, Dalpat Singh, who succeeded in 1844, was grandson of the former chief of Partábgarh, and had inherited the State of Dúngarpur on the deposition of Jaswant Singh, by whom he had been adopted. On his succession to Partábgarh he relinquished Dúngarpur. He died in 1864, and was succeeded by his son, Udai Singh, the present Mahárávwal, who was born about 1839. The chief of Partábgarh receives a salute of 15 guns. There are fifty *jágírdárs*, large and small, in the State, possessing altogether 116 villages, with an aggregate annual income of

about £24,660, paying a tribute of £3230 to the Darbár. The administration of the State is carried on almost entirely under the personal supervision and direction of the chief, who has the power of life and death over his own subjects. The military force consists of 12 guns, 40 gunners, 275 cavalry, and 950 infantry.

Partábgarh.—Chief town of Partábgarh State, Rájputána. Lat. 24° 22′ 30″ N., long. 74° 52′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 12,755, namely, 6556 males and 6199 females. Hindus number 10,329; Muhammadans, 2421; and 'others,' 5. The town, situated at a height of 1660 feet above sea-level, was founded by Mahárávwal Partáb Singh at the commencement of the 18th century, on a spot at the crest of a gorge, formerly known as Dhoderia-Khera. It lies rather in a hollow, and is defended by a loopholed wall with 8 gates built by Sálam Singh, when he ascended the throne in 1758. On the south-west is a small fort in which the Mahárávwal's family reside. The palace stands in the centre of the town; it is not of any size, and is generally unoccupied, the present chief having built a new residence about a mile to the east of the town. There are three temples to Vishnu in the town, and three to Siva outside; also 4 Jain temples. Partábgarh is celebrated for its enamelled work of gold inlaid on emerald-coloured glass, and carved to represent hunting and mythological scenes. The art of making this jewellery, for which there is a considerable demand, is now confined to two families, the secret being zealously guarded.

The old capital of the State, Deolia, now almost deserted, lies 7½ miles due west of Partábgarh. Dispensary, school, post-office, and jail.

Partábgarh (*Pratápgarh*).—Ancient fortress in the Jaoli *táluk* of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in lat. 17° 56′ N., and long. 73° 38′ 30″ E., 8 miles south-west of Mahábaleshwar, on a summit of the Western Gháts commanding the PAR GHAT, and dividing one of the sources of the Savitri from the Koina, an affluent of the Kistna. The fort, 3543 feet above sea-level, looks from a distance like a round-topped hill, the walls of the lower fort forming a sort of band or crown round the brow. The western and northern sides of the fort are gigantic cliffs with an almost vertical drop in many places of seven or eight hundred feet. The towers and bastions on the south and east are often 30 to 40 feet high, while there is in most places a scarp of naked black rock not much lower.

In 1656, Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá power, selected this almost impregnable position as one of his principal forts. Partábgarh was the scene of his treacherous murder of the Muhammadan general, Afzul Khán, who had been sent against him by the King of Bijápur. In 1659, Sivají decoyed Afzul Khán to a personal interview by

a pretended submission, the two leaders being each attended by a single armed follower. Sivají stabbed the Musalmán general, and gave the signal to his ambushed army to attack the Muhammadan troops, who, bewildered by the loss of their chief, were utterly routed. For an interesting account of the murder of Afzul Khán, and the defeat of the Muhammadan army, the reader is referred to Grant Duff's *History of the Maráthás*, vol. i. pp. 124–126 (Bombay, 1863). In the Maráthá war of 1818, Partábgarh was surrendered to the British by private negotiation, though it was an important stronghold and was held by a large garrison.

Parúr.—Town in Vomdáchalam *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 24′ 20″ N., long. 79° 33′ E. Population (1881) 4593, residing in 635 houses. Hindus number 4449; Muhammadans, 28; and Christians, 116. Interesting on account of the fossil beds of the 'Upper Green Sand and Gault' formation found here, which are described in vol. iv. part 1 of the *Records of the Geological Department.*

Párúr.—Town in Páravúr Sub-division, Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* PARAVUR.

Párvatípur.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 47′ N., and long. 83° 28′ 10″ E. Head-quarters of the senior Assistant Agent, with magistrate's court, police and post offices. A centre of trade between the hills and the plains, being at the junction of three roads from Pálkonda, Jaipur, and Vizianágaram. Population (1881) 9933, namely, 4766 males and 5167 females, dwelling in 1976 houses. Hindus number 9783, and Muhammadans 150. Párvatípur is the centre of the Belgám *zamíndárí.*

Párvatípur.—Agency tract in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 37,552, namely, 19,655 males and 17,897 females; all but 43 were Hindus. Number of houses, 8827, and of villages, 260.

Parwán.—River of Bhágalpur District, Bengal; rising in the south-east corner of Nárídgar *parganá*, not far from the source of the Dhasán. The two streams pursue different courses, about 2½ or 3 miles apart, until their waters mingle at Singheswarsthán, where there is a temple built to Siva Mahádeo. This spot is considered very holy; and several thousand Hindus resort to the shrine in February to pay their devotions, bringing with them small quantities of Ganges water, which they throw over the image of the god. At this place the Dhasán loses its own name; and the mingled waters, under the name of the Parwán, flow on towards the south. The river, after a tortuous course of nearly 30 miles, forms the Sahsál swamp, the outlet from which assumes the name of the Katná, and flows into *parganá* Pharkiyá, a mile and a quarter below the triple junction of that *parganá* with Chháí and Nisankpur Kúrá.

The Parwán is navigable for boats of 50 *maunds* (less than 2 tons) burthen up to the village of Mánpur, a few miles south-east of the Sub-divisional head-quarters of Madahpúrá. In their upper courses the Parwán and Dhasán are dry during the hot months, and are only navigable during the rainy season. Below their point of junction, the Parwán is navigable by small boats all the year round.

Pasgawán.—*Parganá* in Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Muhamdi *parganá*, on the east by the Gúmti river, on the south by Hardoi District, and on the west by Sháhjahánpur District, from which it is separated by the Sukhetá river. Area, 121 square miles, of which 58 are cultivated. Population (1881) 49,775, of whom 42,099 are Hindus, 7378 Muhammadans, and 298 'others.' No towns or important *bázárs*. Land revenue, £6080. The present *parganá* was formed as recently as 1869, by the amalgamation of the two older *parganás*, Pasgawán and Barwár. After the breaking up of the great Barwár estate, the land settlement was made with small independent *zamíndárs*; and of the 163 villages comprising the *parganá*, 142 are held by small proprietors under *zamíndárí* tenure, while 21 are *tálukdárí*.

Pa-shin.—River in Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* PA-TA-SHIN.

Pasrúr.—Central *tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab, lying between 32° 6′ 15″ and 32° 20′ 30″ N. lat., and between 74° 28′ 45″ and 74° 46′ 45″ E. long. Area, 543 square miles, with 575 towns and villages, 26,732 houses, and 67,717 families. Population (1881) 251,928, namely, males 134,180, and females 117,748. Classified according to religion—Muhammadans number 181,161, or 71·9 per cent.; Hindus, 57,886, or 22·9 per cent.; Sikhs, 12,547, or 4·9 per cent.; Jains, 406; and Christians, 18. Density of population, 464 persons per square mile. Of the 575 towns and villages, 437 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 93 from five hundred to a thousand; 34 from one to two thousand; 10 from two thousand to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The average cultivated area for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 is returned at 349 square miles, or 223,386 acres; the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 108,055 acres; barley, 35,754 acres; rice, 11,656 acres; Indian corn, 11,496 acres; *joár*, 6503 acres; gram, 4505 acres; other food-grains, 1520 acres. Of non-food crops, sugar-cane occupied 10,207 acres; cotton, 11,947 acres; and vegetables, 2247 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £20,229. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates, presiding over 4 civil and 3 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3, namely, Pasrúr, Satrah, and Kilá Sobha Singh. Strength of regular police, 67 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 471.

Pasrúr.—Decayed town in Siálkot District, Punjab, and head-

quarters of Pasrúr *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 32° 16′ N., long. 74° 42′ 30″ E., on the Amritsar road, about 18 miles south of Siálkot town. Pasrúr was once a place of greater size than at present, and is said to have been founded by a Bájwá Ját in the reign of the Emperor Bábar. Traces of its former prosperity remain, including a tank constructed during the reign of Jahángír; a canal to supply the town with water, built by Prince Dára Sheko, brother of Aurangzeb; and a bridge erected by Sháh Daulá. Many handsome houses of Sikh gentlemen and other notabilities. The shrine of Miran Barkhúrdár, a Muhammadan saint, is the scene of a religious gathering during the *Muharram.* Population (1881) 8378, namely, Muhammadans, 5954; Hindus, 1889; Jains, 375; Sikhs, 159; and Christian, 1. Number of houses, 1309. Municipal income (1883–84), £364, or an average of 10½d. per head of the population. Pasrúr is a centre of local trade, consisting principally of grain, which it receives from neighbouring villages, and exports to different parts of the District. No manufactures. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts, Pasrúr contains a police station, post-office, dispensary, schools for boys and girls; *sarái* or rest-house, *zailghar* or tavern for the use of head-men of villages; and an encamping ground. A large cattle fair is held at Koreke, a village about 6 miles from Pasrúr, at the shrine of a Muhammadan saint named Gúlú Sháh.

Pata Cuddapah.—Suburb of CUDDAPAH TOWN, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 29′ 45″ N., long. 78° 53′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 6616, inhabiting 1822 houses; and (1881) 5364, inhabiting 1312 houses. Divided into 4 hamlets. Hindus number 5133; Muhammadans, 220; and Christians, 11.

Pátámári.—Village in Goálpárá District, Assam, 9 miles south of Dhubrí on the right bank of the Brahmaputra, with considerable exports of jute. Post-office; large weekly market.

Pátan.—*Parganá* in Purwá *tahsíl,* Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Magráyar, Purwá, and Panhán *parganás,* on the east by Panhán and Bihár, on the south by Bhagwantnagar, and on the west by Magráyar *parganá.* Area, 11 square miles, of which 4 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 5740, namely, 5543 Hindus and 197 Muhammadans. The *parganá* comprises 15 villages, of which 12 are held under *tálukdárí* and 3 under *zamíndárí* tenure. The chief proprietary body are Bráhmans and Bais Rájputs among the higher, and Kúrmis among the lower castes.

Pátan.—Town in Purwá *tahsíl,* Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of Pátan *parganá;* situated on the banks of the small river Lon. Population (1881) 2238. Two annual fairs are held near the tomb of a famous Muhammadan saint, one of which, in December, is attended by as many as 300,000 persons. The holy man is supposed

to exercise a beneficial influence over the insane; and on the occasions of the festival these unfortunates are brought, sometimes to the number of hundreds, and tied up to trees opposite the tomb, where they are left all night. Village school.

Pátan. — Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in the south-east corner of the District, Pátan is hilly. The chief feature in the west is the south-running Koina valley with its lofty flanking hills. On the east the valleys of the Koina, Tárle, and Kole open into the plains of the Kistna. The soil of the eastern valleys is good, and yields both early and late crops, chiefly *joár* (Sorghum vulgare) and ground nuts, and, when watered, sugar-cane. The rest of the soil is red, and except in the hollows where rice and sometimes sugar-cane are grown, is under nomadic cultivation. The Koina, the Tárle, and their feeders furnish abundance of water to the villages on and near their banks. Away from the rivers, both on the tops of the hills and in the valleys, especially during March, April, and May, water is scarce. The climate is cool and healthy in the hot weather, but the chilly damp of the rains makes it feverish. Area, 536 square miles, containing 1 town and 201 villages. Population (1872) 115,491; (1881) 112,414, namely, 57,235 males and 55,179 females, occupying 14,869 houses. Hindus number 110,598; Muhammadans, 1626; and 'others,' 190. In 1882–83, the number of holdings, including alienated lands in Government villages, was 15,021, with an average area of 7·57 acres. In 1881–82, of 85,814 acres held for cultivation, 38,464 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 47,350 acres, 5498 were twice cropped. Grain crops occupied 43,154 acres; pulses, 7563 acres; oil-seeds, 505 acres; fibres, 97 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1529 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; 1 police circle (*thánú*); regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 61. Land revenue, £24,954.

Pátan. — Head-quarters of Pátan Sub-division, Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 22′ N., and long. 73° 38′ E. Situated at the junction of the Koina and Kerla rivers, about 25 miles south-west of Sátára town. Population (1881) 3548. The town consists of two parts, the upper part containing the Sub-divisional and post offices, school, market, and the mansion of the *inámdár* Nágojiráo Pátankar, a second class *sardár* and honorary magistrate, with civil jurisdiction in his villages. The other part consists of a beautifully wooded suburb called Rámápur on the left bank of the Koina. A specially fine grove of mango and jack trees lies at its south-east corner. A broad market street and a number of artisans' and traders' shops connect the two parts.

Pátan.—Sub-division of Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory), Gujarát. Area, 469 square miles. Population (1881) 120,830, namely, 61,914 males and 58,916 females, dwelling in 138 towns and villages. Hindus

number 105,896; Muhammadans, 9252; and Jains, 5682. The number of holdings was 13,771 in 1882, each holding having an average area of nine and one-fifth acres. The region is a fairly wooded plain, with the river Saraswati running through the centre. Rainfall, 20 inches. Land revenue, £41,778.

Pátan (or *Anhilwára Pattan*). — Chief town of the Pátan Sub-division, Baroda State, Gujarát; situated in lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 10′ 30″ E., on the small river Saraswatí, a tributary of the Banás. In 1871 the population was returned at 31,523; (1881) 32,712, namely, 15,540 males and 17,172 females, of whom about one-eighth are Jains, who have no fewer than 108 temples. There are also extensive Jain libraries in the city, consisting mostly of palm-leaf manuscripts, which are very jealously guarded. Many remains of considerable architectural beauty are still to be seen outside the city. Anhilwára Pátan is one of the oldest and most renowned towns of Gujarát. It was the capital of successive dynasties of Rájput kings from 746 to 1194 A.D.; and during the whole time of Musalmán supremacy, it maintained a position of some importance. Swords and spears are manufactured in the town, and some pottery; and silk and cotton weaving is carried on. The modern town is mostly of Maráthá construction, and is entirely surrounded by a wall of great thickness and considerable height. Post-office, hospital; Anglo-vernacular, Gujaráthí, and Maráthí schools.

Pátan (*Pattana*, or *Pátan Somnáth*).—Ancient historic town and shrine in the Sorath Division, Junagarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 4′ N., and long. 71° 26′ E. Population (1881) 6644. Hindus number 2985; Muhammadans, 3357; and Jains, 302. —*See* SOMNATH.

Pátan (*Keshorái Pátan*).—Next to the capital, the most important village of Búndi (Boondee) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 25° 17′ N., and long. 75° 59′ E., at a bend of the Chambal, 12 miles below Kotah, where the river, running in a north-easterly direction, suddenly turns almost at right angles, and, after a straight reach of 5 miles, turns back still more abruptly to its former direction. Population (1881) 3937.

Keshorái Pátan claims a very remote antiquity, local historians affecting to trace its traditions back to the mythological period of the *Máhábhárata*. In the present aspect of the town, however, there is little that testifies to any great age. Two ancient inscriptions alone remain. One is in a *sati* temple on the Breham Ghát, which bears date Samvat 35. The other, in an adjoining temple, is dated Samvat 152. Long before these periods, however, and before the existence of any town at all, it is said that one Parasurám built a temple here sacred to Mahádeo, or Siva. This temple gradually fell into decay, but was rebuilt during the reign of Chattar Sál; to whom also is due the completion

of the larger temple of Keshorái, for which the town of Pátan is now famous. The foundations of this latter temple were laid during the reign of Chattar Sál's grandfather, Maháráo Ratanjí; but he died before anything more than the supporting platform, which stands close to the river bank, had been constructed. On the accession of his grandson, the work was resumed, and the temple finished as it now stands. It contains an image of Keshorái, a name for Vishnu, and attracts yearly a large crowd of worshippers. The temple has an endowment of £1000 yearly from Búndi, and £300 from Kotah. The managers and attendants are hereditary, counting now about 300 persons, the descendants of one family. The temple itself, though large, does not possess any marked architectural beauties; and it has been so incessantly covered with fresh coats of whitewash, that it now looks not unlike a huge piece of fretwork in wax or sugar, which heat or moisture had partially melted.

Patán.—One of the chief towns of Nepál; situated, approximately, in lat. 27° 38′ N., and long. 85° 13′ E., on rising ground, a short distance from the southern bank of the Bághmati, about 2 miles south-east of Khatmandu. Pátan is thus described by Dr. Wright, formerly surgeon to the British Residency in Nepál:—

'It is an older town than Khatmandu, having been built in the reign of Rájá Bír Deva in the Káligat year 3400 (299 A.D.). It is also known by the names of Yellondesi and Lálita Pátan. The latter name is derived from Lálit, the founder of the city. Its general aspect is much the same as that of the capital. The streets are as narrow and dirty, the gutters as offensive, and the temples even more numerous; but it appears much more dilapidated than Khatmandu, many of the houses and temples being in ruins. The main square, however, in the centre of the town, is very handsome. On one side is the old Darbár, with a fine brazen gateway, guardian lions, and endless carvings. In front of this are monoliths, with the usual figures on them, and behind these a row of handsome old temples of every description. The parade-ground lies to the south-east of the town, the road to it passing through a suburb abounding in pigs. The parade-ground is extensive, and there are several large tanks to the west, while on the southern side stands a huge Buddhist temple of the most primitive description. This temple is merely a mound or dome of brickwork, covered with earth. There is a small shrine at each of the cardinal points, and on the top what looks like a wooden ladder. Many similar mound-temples or *chaityas* exist in and around Pátan. The population of the town is said to be about 30,000.'

Pátan is connected with Khatmandu by a bridged road. A brigade of regular troops is quartered to the south of the town. The people are mainly Buddhists, and comprise the superior artisan classes of Nepál.

Pátan.—Tributary chiefship in Tourwáti District of Jaipur State, Rájputána. This chiefship is interesting from the fact of its rulers being the direct lineal descendants of a very ancient house, the Tuár kings of Delhi, who were expelled that place some eight centuries ago, on its capture by the Ghor dynasty. The family settled at Pátan, and have since ruled there undisturbed. Population (1881) of the chief town, Pátan, 11,886, namely, 6430 males and 5456 females. Hindus, 11,365, and Muhammadans, 521.

Pátan.—Village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) *tahsíl*, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3171, namely, Hindus, 2532; Muhammadans, 383; Jains, 88; non-Hindu aborigines, 168. Small trade in grain. Government school and police outpost.

Pataná.—Village in Bhabuá Sub-division, Sháhábád District, Bengal, which, in the opinion of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, was once the residence of the chief ruler of the Suar or Sivirá tribe. Sometimes called Srírámpur, from a hamlet of that name which now occupies part of the ruins to the south-west of the village. In the immediate neighbourhood of Pataná is a *linga*, surrounded by a wall and some broken images, the largest of which represents Mahávíra, or the warlike monkey. Many other remains are scattered about.

Patan Sáongí.—Town in Rámtek *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 19′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 4′ E., on a fertile and elevated plain by the river Kolár, 14 miles from Nágpur city. Population (1881) 4810, namely, Hindus, 4485; Muhammadans, 258; Kabírpanthís, 21; Jains, 10; non-Hindu aborigines, 36. Chief products —cotton stuffs and tobacco. In 1742, during the struggle between Walí Sháh and the legitimate princes, 12,000 men were massacred by the victorious party in the now ruined fort. Up to the death of the late Rájá, a troop of horse was stationed in the town; and till lately it was the head-quarters of a *tahsíl*. It has a good market-place and *sarái* (native inn), with metalled roads and streets.

Pa-ta-shin (*Pa-shin*).—River in Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It rises in the Arakan range, and at first is known as the San-da; after an easterly course of about 40 miles, it falls into the Irawadi. The Pa-ta-shin drains an area of 100 square miles; its principal tributaries are the Pa-daw and the A-lun. It is navigable in the rains for a distance of 30 miles.

Pataudi.—Native State under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 28° 14′ and 28° 22′ N. lat., and between 76° 42′ and 76° 52′ 30″ E. long. Area, 48 square miles, with 40 villages, 2537 houses, and 4136 families. Total population (1881), 17,847, namely, males 9510, and females 8337. Average density of the population, 372 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 14,473; Muhammadans, 3286;

Jains, 81; and Christians, 7. Estimated gross revenue of the State, £10,000 per annum. Principal products—grain, cotton, sugar, and spices. The Rájputána State Railway from Delhi to Bandikui junction passes through the State about 40 miles south-west of Delhi.

The present Nawáb of Pataudi, Muhammad Mumtaz Husain Alí Khán, a Balúchí by race, was born in 1874. The State was formed by a grant from Lord Lake in 1806 of Pataudi in perpetual *jágír* to Fáiztalab Khán, brother of the Jhajjar Nawáb. Fáiztalab Khán was severely wounded in an action with Holkar's troops, and the *jágír* was granted to him in recognition of his services. The estimated military force of the State, including police, is 94 men.

Paterá.—Large rent-free estate in Deorí *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces.—*See* PITIHRA.

Paterá.—Village in Hatta *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated 18 miles north of Damoh town. Population (1881) 2238, namely, Hindus, 1940; Muhammadans, 215; Jains, 67; Christians, 4; and non-Hindu aborigines, 12. Trade in grain, and manufacture of brass-work. Good market.

Pátgrám. — Estate in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal, comprising the police division of the same name. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in his MS. account of Rangpur, thus described it in 1809:—'It belongs to the Rájá of Kuch Behar, and contains 68 *mauzás*, or collections of villages. More than half the estate is let to large farmers, some of whom hold under leases called *upanchakí*, which are granted for a certain specified farm, and not according to a particular area; their rent cannot be increased nor their lands measured. Thirty *jotdárs* pay their rent directly to the Rájá's collector; the average rent paid by them is only 6¾d. per Calcutta *bíghá*. The people are very poor, shy, and indolent.'

Pathánkot.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; lying between 32° 5′ 30″ and 32° 23′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 22′ and 75° 44′ 15″ E. long., and including a hill and plain portion. Area, 357 square miles, with 412 towns and villages, 20,775 houses, and 33,616 families. Total population (1881), 140,825, namely, males 78,060, and females 62,765; average density of population, 394 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 92,426, or 65·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 46,630, or 33·1 per cent.; Sikhs, 1475, or 1·0 per cent.; and Christians, 294, of whom 279 are Europeans or Eurasians. Of the 412 towns and villages, 327 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 52 from five hundred to a thousand; 27 from one to two thousand; 5 from two to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The average cultivated area for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 is returned at 185 square miles, or 118,209 acres; the area under the principal crops being—rice, 35,227 acres; wheat, 32,155 acres; sugar-cane, 7184 acres; *joár*, 6938

acres; gram, 6567 acres; barley, 6344 acres; tobacco, 2765 acres; Indian corn, 1755 acres; *moth*, 1461 acres; and vegetables, 1357 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £19,875. The administrative staff consists of 1 extra Assistant Commissioner, 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 1 honorary magistrate exercising criminal powers only. These officers preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 6, namely, Pathánkot, Sháhpur, Dunerá, Dalhousie, Parmanand, and Narot. Number of regular police, 110 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 302.

Pathánkot.—Town and municipality in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 16′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 42′ E., near the head of the Bári Doab, and 23 miles north-east of Gurdáspur town, at the point where the trade route from the hills of Chambá, Núrpur, and Kángra unite and enter the plains. Pathánkot is a flourishing town, increasing in commercial importance. The population, which in 1868 numbered 2818, had increased to 4344 in 1881. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 2316; Hindus, 1991; Sikhs, 32; and Christians, 5. Number of houses, 852. Municipal income (1883–84), £483, derived chiefly from octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 2½d. per head. Pathánkot is the terminus of the carriage road from Amritsar to Dalhousie and Kángra, the remaining distance lying through the hills, and being performed on horseback or by *dhulí*. The town itself is a collection of brick-built houses, well drained, and with paved streets. It is the seat of a considerable shawl-weaving industry. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts, the town contains a police station, post-office, two *bázárs*, school-house, dispensary, municipal hall, *dák* bungalow, *sarái* or native inn, and encamping ground. For an account of the antiquities of Pathánkot, see General Cunningham's *Reports of the Archæological Survey*, vol. v. pp. 145–155, and vol. xiv. pp. 115–119, and 135, 136; also his *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 143, 144.

Páthardi.—Town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 10′ 25″ N., and long. 75° 13′ 31″ E., about 30 miles east of Ahmadnagar town. Population (1881) 6734. Hindus number 5968; Muhammadans, 603; Jains, 148; and 'others,' 15. The town lies picturesquely on the side of a steep hill which rises in the midst of a barren tract, skirted on the north and east by a range of hills which pass from Dongargáon into the Nizám's territory. Post-office, and two schools with 247 pupils in 1883–84.

Pathári.—Native State under the Bhopál Agency of Central India, adjoining the British District of Ságar (Saugor), and lying south-west of Rahatgarh. The chief, Nawáb Abdul Karím Khán, an Afghán by race, was born about 1852. He belongs to a younger branch of the Bhopál family, being descended from its founder, Dost Muhammad. In 1807,

Nawáb Haidar Muhammad Khán, the father of the present chief, was deprived of his patrimony by Sindhia; but eventually, through the mediation of the British Government, he obtained the present estate in exchange for certain villages he held in Rahatgarh. Area of Pathári, 22 square miles. Population (1875) 4330; (1881) 6393. Hindus number 5410; Muhammadans, 965; Sikhs, 10; and aborigines, 8. Revenue, about £1200. The chief town, Pathári, lies in lat. 23° 56′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E.

Pathariá. — Hill range in the south of Sylhet District, Assam. Estimated area, 47 square miles; height above sea-level, 600 feet. In this tract, a peculiar perfume called *agar attar* is manufactured. It is distilled from the resinous sap of the *pitákará* (Aquilaria agalocha, Roxb.), and is said to be exported *viâ* Calcutta as far as Arabia and Turkey.

Pathariá. — Village in Damoh *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 53′ N., and long. 79° 14′ E., 17 miles west of Damoh town, on the main road between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságar (Saugor). Population (1881) 2326, namely, Hindus, 2075; Muhammadans, 125; Jains, 99; and Kabírpanthís, 27. Under the Maráthás, an Amíl was stationed at Pathariá, which appears to have once been a much larger place. Government school, dispensary, police station, and travellers' bungalow.

Pathri.—Village in Khairágarh State, attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2093, namely, Hindus, 1544; Kabírpanthís, 322; Satnámís, 10; Muhammadans, 96; and non-Hindu aborigines, 121.

Pathrot.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar. Population (1881) 5271, of whom 4646 were Hindus, 617 Musalmáns, and 8 Jains.

Patiála.—Native State, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government. Patiála belongs to the group known as the cis-Sutlej States; and is situated between 29° 23′ 15″ and 30° 54′ N. lat., and between 74° 40′ 30″ and 76° 59′ 15″ E. long. The State is divided into two portions, of which the larger is situated in the plain south of the Sutlej (Satlaj), while the other portion is hill country stretching up to Simla, which latter place formerly belonged to Patiála, but has been exchanged for territory in the district of Barauli.

Within the confines of the State are situated a slate quarry near Simla, and a lead mine near Subáthu; the latter is worked by a company, and yields about 40 tons of ore a month, containing from 16 to 72 per cent. of lead. There are also marble quarries and copper mines in Narnaul. The usual cereals are produced in the tracts under cultivation.

Area of the State, 5887 square miles, with 2601 towns and villages, 282,063 houses, and 328,668 families. Total population (1881) 1,467,433, namely, males 806,984, and females 660,449; density

of population, 249 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 734,902; Muhammadans, 321,354; Sikhs, 408,141; Jains, 2997; and Christians, 39. Estimated gross revenue of the State, £468,956.

History.—The ruling families of Patiála, of Jínd (Jheend), and ot Nábha, are called 'the Phulkian houses,' because they are descended from Phul, a Chaudharí, or agricultural notable, who in the middle of the 17th century founded a village in the Nábha territory called after his name. The Rájás of Jínd and Nábha are descended from Tiloka, the eldest son of Phul; the Mahárájá of Patiála is descended from Ráma, the second son, and is a Sikh of the Sidhu Ját tribe.

Like most of the Ját tribes, the Sidhus claim a Rájput origin, and trace their descent from Jaisal, a Bhatti Rájput, and founder of the State and city of Jaisalmer, who was driven from his kingdom by a successful rebellion in 1180 A.D. From Jaisal descended Sidhu; from Sidhu descended Saughar, who aided Bábar at the battle of Pánípat, and whose son Bariám was made by the victor a Chaudharí, or head-man of a District, responsible for its revenues. Phul was descended from Bariám, and as a boy received the blessing of Gúrú Har Govind, the sixth Sikh *gúrú*, who said of him, 'His name shall be a true omen, and he shall bear many blossoms.' From the Emperor Sháh Jahán he obtained a *farmán* granting him the *chaudhríyat* so long held by his ancestors. He died in 1652 A.D. From him are descended not only the chiefs of Jínd and Nábha, but also the Laudhgharia families, and those of Bhadaur and Malod,—in all, thirteen houses; and these were at one time equal in point of rank.

Ala Singh, son of Ráma and grandson of Phul, succeeded in defeating the Nawáb Sayyid Asad Alí Khán, the imperial general commanding in the Jálandhar *doáb*, at the battle of Barnala, and obtained many other successes over the Bhattís and other foes. He built a fort at Patiála, and, after being utterly defeated, with other Sikh leaders, at the battle of the Barnala in 1762 by Ahmad Sháh Duráni, he submitted to the Afghán invader, and received from him the title of Rájá. After the departure of Ahmad Sháh, however, Rájá Ala Singh put himself at the head of his Sikhs, and boldly attacked the Afghán governor of Sirhind, whom he defeated and killed. The city of Sirhind was never rebuilt, and is held accursed to this day by the Sikhs; but a considerable portion of the population was removed to the rising town of Patiála. Ahmad Sháh, when he again invaded India, not only forgave Ala Singh for his attack on Sirhind, but actually received him into favour, on the payment of a subsidy; and, on the return of the Duráni monarch, Ala Singh accompanied him as far as Lahore. Ala Singh died at Patiála in 1765, having firmly established the foundations of this the most important of the cis-Sutlej States.

Ala Singh's successor was Amar Singh, who obtained from Ahmad Sháh Duráni, in 1767, the title of Rájá-i-Rájgán Bahádur, and the insignia of a flag and a drum. About the year 1772 he was threatened with an attack of the Maráthás under Janka Ráo, and sent off all his treasures and family jewels to Bhatinda; and subsequently he was in great danger from a rebellion of his brother Himmat Singh, who seized the fort of Patiála; but he was finally successful in defending himself from all his enemies, and largely increased his power at the expense of his neighbours and of the crumbling Delhi Empire. He died in 1781; and for a long time afterwards the chiefship of Patiála was in feeble hands, and its importance waned before the growing power of Ranjít Singh at Lahore.

The terrible and unprecedented famine of 1783 did much to cripple the power and resources of Patiála. Sir Lepel Griffin says of this famine (*Punjab Rájás*, 1870, p. 57):—'The year previous had been dry, and the harvest deficient; but in 1783 it entirely failed. The country was depopulated, the peasants abandoning their villages, and dying in thousands of disease and want. But little revenue could be collected; the country swarmed with bands of robbers and *dakáits*; and the state of anarchy was almost inconceivable. The neighbouring chiefs began to seize for themselves the Patiála villages, and all who dared threw off Patiála authority, and declared themselves independent.' The Rájá of Patiála was, however, saved by the courage and energy of the Díwán, and of certain ladies of the ruling family, which has always been famous for the talents of its female members. These formed an alliance with the Maráthás, and by their aid subdued all those who had attacked the Ráj; but they received little gratitude from the Rájá Sáhib Singh, and finally died in disgrace or exile.

During the concluding years of the century, the State suffered much from the famous adventurer George Thomas; but at last the Sikhs, with the aid of Perron and Bourquin, were able to drive him off. After the capture of Delhi by General Lake in 1803, and the subsequent submission of the Maráthás under the treaty of Sarji Anjengáon, the English became the paramount power in this part of India; and when, in 1807 and 1808, the Maháráját Ranjít Singh seemed to be entertaining designs on the cis-Sutlej country, an appeal was made to the English Governor-General for protection. This was eventually accorded; and a treaty was made with Ranjít Singh in 1809, in which he engaged not to commit or suffer any encroachments on the possessions or rights of the cis-Sutlej chiefs.

In the Nepál war of 1815, when the Gúrkhas were expelled from the hill country above the Punjab, the Patiála chief aided the British Government with troops, and received, in recognition of his services, an accession to his territory in the hill country. Again, when the Sikh

army invaded the cis-Sutlej States in 1845–46, the Mahárájá of Patiála cast in his lot with the British, and obtained, for his services during the campaign, the gift of an additional portion of territory. During the Mutiny of 1857, Mahárájá Narendra Singh aided the British Government by furnishing an auxiliary force which proceeded to Delhi, and kept open the communication on the Grand Trunk Road. He also helped the Government with money. For these services he received from the British Government the Narnaul division of the Jhajjar territory, besides other rewards. Narendra Singh was succeeded in 1862 by his son Mahendra Singh, who died in 1876, and was succeeded by his infant son, Rajendra Singh, the present Mahárájá.

The Mahárájá of Patiála furnishes a contingent of 100 horse for general duty. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The military force consists of about 2750 cavalry, 600 infantry including police, 31 field and 78 other guns, and 238 artillerymen.

Patiála.—Capital of the Patiála State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 20′ N., long. 76° 25′ E. Founded in 1752 by Sardár Ala Singh. Population (1881) 53,629, namely, males 30,858, and females 22,771. Hindus number 24,963; Muhammadans, 21,119; Sikhs, 7101; Jains, 435; and Christians, 11. Number of houses, 11,692.

Patiáli.—Ancient town in Alíganj *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the old high bank of the Ganges, 22 miles north-east of Etah town, with which it is connected by a broad unmetalled road. The present town is built on a mound of ancient *débris*, marking the site of the ancient city, which dates from the time of the *Mahábhárata*. A ruined fort, built by Sháhab-ud-dín Ghori, still stands, but the greater part of its block *kankar* walls have been carried away by the inhabitants as building materials for their houses, or by Government officials for the erection of bridges and public buildings. Population (1881) 4798. For the support of the police and for the conservancy and sanitation of the town, a small house-tax is raised. Patiáli was a flourishing town in the days of the Rohillá power, but is now decayed into a mere village with no trade or manufactures. It was the scene of a brilliant victory over the rebels during the Mutiny of 1857–58.

Pátkulándá.—Ancient *zamíndárí* or chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, 35 miles south-west of Sambalpur town. Population (1881) 1292, chiefly agricultural, residing in 6 villages; area, 10 square miles, the whole of which is cultivated, for the most part with rice. The chief is a Gond, belonging to a branch of the Bheran *zamíndár's* family, whose estate it adjoins. The chief was outlawed for having joined in the rebellion of 1858, but was afterwards amnestied and restored to his estate.

Patná.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of

the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 24° 17′ 15″ and 27° 29′ 45″ N. lat., and between 83° 23′ and 86° 46′ E. long. Area, 23,726 square miles. It comprises the Districts of PATNA, GAYA, SHAHABAD, DARBHANGAH, MUZAFFARPUR, SARAN, and CHAMPARAN, all of which see separately. The Division is bounded on the north by Nepál; on the east by Bhágalpur and Monghyr; on the south by Lohárdagá and Hazáribágh Districts; and on the west by the Districts of Mirzápur, Gházípur, and Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces.

The population of Patná Division was returned in the Census Report of 1872 at 13,120,817. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a population of 15,063,944, showing a total increase of 1,943,127, or 14·8 per cent., in nine years. This increase, though largely due to natural causes, is partly fallacious, and due to under-enumeration in 1872, as is shown by subsequent Censuses of two Sub-divisions of Darbhangah District in 1874 and in 1876, both of which disclosed a very large increase of population over the Census of 1872, that could not be attributable to any natural increase.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the Division, 23,647 square miles, with 67 towns and 44,524 villages; number of houses, 2,241,533. Total population, 15,063,944, namely, males 7,368,185, and females 7,695,759; proportion of males, 48·9 per cent. Average density of population, 637·03 persons per square mile, varying from 450·15 per square mile in Sháhábád to 869·71 per square mile in Sáran District; number of persons per town or village, 338; inmates per house, 6·7. Classified according to sex and age, the Census shows—under 15 years of age, males 2,995,288, and females 2,868,095; total children, 5,863,383, or 38·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 4,372,897, and females 4,827,664; total adults, 9,200,561, or 61·1 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, Hindus number 13,327,728, or 88·4 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 1,730,093, or 11·5 per cent.; Christians, 5875; Brahmos, 16; Jains, 22; Jews, 14; Pársí, 1; and 'others,' 195. Of the higher caste of Hindus, Bráhmans number 865,034, and Rájputs 968,342: intermediate castes include—Bábhans, 750,304; Kayasths, 287,977; and Baniyás, 242,879. Of the lower or Sudra castes, the most important (numerically) are—Gwálá, 1,844,463, the most numerous caste in the Division; Koerí, 909,084; Dosádh, 829,295; Chamár, 689,840; Kúrmí, 681,860; Telí, 436,324; Kundu, 426,885; Kahár, 357,167; Mallah, 328,712; Musahár, 274,974; Dhanuk, 258,496; Nuniyá, 231,124; Nápit, 219,702; Lohár, 186,306; Kumbhár, 172,215; Bárhai, 157,951; Tatwá, 149,941; Sonár, 134,664; Dhobí, 131,460; Kalwar, 126,558; Pásí, 121,356; Bind, 98,780;

Garerí, 84,277; Madak, 83,241; Sunrí, 78,641; Tántí, 69,207; Baruí, 57,245; Dom, 56,571; Rájwar, 55,399; Keut or Kewat, 54,650; and Málí, 54,245. The non-Hindu aborigines number only 195, while the Hindus of aboriginal descent are returned at 211,173, namely—Bhuinya, 103,015; Gond, 29,723; Kharwár, 12,549; and 'others,' 65,886. The Muhammadan population, divided according to sect, consists of Sunnís, 1,541,235; Shiás, 31,251; Wahábís, 27; and unspecified, 157,580. Of the 5875 Christians, Europeans number 2199; Eurasians, 541; natives of India, 2772; and all others, 363. By sect, the Christians include—Church of England, 1689; Protestants, unspecified as to sect, 686; Roman Catholics, 2641; Church of Scotland, 99; Baptists, 89; Lutherans, 72; and Methodists, 67; other sects or unspecified, 532.

Town and Rural Population.—The following are the thirteen principal towns in Patná Division with a population exceeding 15,000—Patná city, 170,654; Gayá, 76,415; Darbhangah, 65,955; Chapra, 51,670; Behar, 48,968; Arrah, 42,998; Muzaffarpur, 42,460; Dinápur, 37,898; Hájípur, 25,078; Bettiah, 21,263; Dumráon, 17,429; Buxar, 16,498; and Lálganj, 16,431. Total of thirteen largest towns, 633,717. Besides the foregoing, there are 54 minor towns or municipalities, with an aggregate population of 371,789. The total urban population therefore amounts to 1,005,506, or 6·67 per cent. of the total. Patná Division contains forty-five municipalities, with an aggregate population of 910,026; total municipal income (1883–84), £45,136, of which £34,309 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9d. per head of the municipal population. The Census Report thus classifies the 44,591 towns and villages—23,037 villages contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 13,413 from two to five hundred; 5890 from five hundred to a thousand; 1819 from one to two thousand; 291 from two to three thousand; 84 from three to five thousand; 33 from five to ten thousand; 11 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 13 upwards of fifteen thousand.

As regards occupation, the male population are thus returned—(1) Professional class, including all military and civil officials, 89,595; (2) domestic class, 271,588; (3) commercial class, 215,967; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 2,614,109; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 494,040; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 3,682,886.

Administration.—The six main items of Government revenue in 1883–84 aggregated £1,404,091, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £811,607; excise, £270,748; stamps, £169,165; registration, £16,362; road cess, £101,900; and municipal taxes, £34,309. The charges for civil administration, as represented by the cost of the officials and police, amounted in 1883–84 to £213,041. The land

revenue is derived from 49,297 estates, held by 361,399 individual registered proprietors; average land revenue paid by each estate, £16, 9s. 4d.; by each proprietor, £2, 4s. 10d. The Division contains 49 civil and 71 criminal courts, with 80 police circles (*thánás*). Strength of regular and municipal police, 4518 men, besides a rural police or village watch of 30,433 *chaukídárs*.

Patná.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 58′ and 25° 42′ N. lat., and between 84° 44′ and 86° 5′ E. long. Area, 2079 square miles. Population (1881) 1,756,856. Patná forms the south central District of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the river Ganges, which separates it from Sáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhangah; on the east by Monghyr; on the south by Gayá; and on the west by the river Son (Soane), which separates it from Sháhábád District. The chief town is PATNA, which adjoins on the east the administrative head-quarters at BANKIPUR, and is situated on the south or right bank of the Ganges.

Physical Aspects.—Patná District is, throughout the greater part of its extent, a dead level; but towards the south the ground rises into hills. The soil is for the most part alluvial; and the country along the bank of the Ganges is peculiarly fertile, producing the finest crops of all descriptions. The general line of drainage is from west to east; and high ground along the south of the Ganges forces back the rivers flowing from the District of Gayá. The result is that, during the rains, nearly the whole interior of the District south of a line drawn parallel to the Ganges, and 4 or 5 miles from its bank, is flooded. There are no forests or jungles of any extent, but fine groups of trees are found in many places. In the south-east the District is, for some 30 miles, divided from Gayá by the RAJAGRIHA HILLS, which consist of two parallel ridges running south-west, with a narrow valley between, intersected by ravines and passes. These hills, which seldom exceed 1000 feet in height, are rocky and clothed with thick low jungle. They possess a special interest for the antiquary, as containing some of the earliest memorials of Buddhism. To the north of this ridge rises an isolated hill, which, being composed of the same materials as the Rájágríhá Hills, may be considered as an outlying spur of that range; it has been identified by General Cunningham with the 'Kapotika' of Hiuen Tsiang. Hot springs are common on the Rájágríhá Hills.

The chief rivers of Patná are the GANGES and the SON (Soane), which form, as has been said, the northern and western boundaries of the District respectively. The total length of the Ganges along the boundary of Patná District is 93 miles. The Son first touches the District near Mahíbalípur village, and flows in a northerly direction for 41 miles, till it joins the Ganges; during this part of its course it receives

no tributaries. The PATNA CANAL (*q.v.*), one of the most important branches of the Son Canal system, passes through the west of the District. The only other river of any consequence is the PUNPUN, which, though described as one of the navigable rivers of Bengal, is in this District chiefly remarkable for the number of petty irrigation canals which it supplies with water. So much of the river is thus diverted, that only a small portion of its water ever reaches the Ganges. The course of the Punpun is north-easterly until it reaches Naubatpur, where it takes a bend to the east, crossing the Patná and Gayá Railway about 9 miles from Bánkipur, and joins the Ganges at Fatwá. The total length of the Punpun in this District is stated to be 54 miles; about 9 miles from its junction with the Ganges, it is joined by the Múrhar. Great changes have from time to time taken place in the course of the Ganges, and the point at which the Son joined this river was once several miles east of its present position (*see* GANGES).

Forests, jungles, marshes, or pasturage grounds, do not exist in Patná District, which is cultivated over almost its entire area. The mineral products consist of building stone, which may be dug from the hill at Behar; *síláját*, a medicinal substance which exudes from the rock at Tapoban and Rájgír; *kankar* or calcareous limestone; and saline efflorescence.

Large game is not abundant in Patná District, there being no jungles except on the Rájágríhá Hills. Among these hills bears are found. Wolves and jackals are common, hyænas are sometimes seen, and the small Indian fox is not unknown; a leopard was killed near Behar town in 1876. Of smaller game, duck, quail, and ortolan are abundant; and partridges and wild geese are also found. Birds of prey are numerous, and hawking was formerly a favourite amusement among rich natives.

History.—The history of Patná District is so intimately interwoven with that of PATNA CITY that it is unnecessary to anticipate what the reader will find in the historical sections of that article. The District possesses special interest, both for the historian and the archæologist. PATNA CITY has been identified with Pátaliputra (the Palibothra of Megasthenes), which is supposed to have been founded six hundred years before the Christian era by Rájá Ajáta Satru, a contemporary of Gautama, the founder of the Buddhist religion; and in the south-eastern portion of the District are found some of the earliest remains of Buddhism. Here, too, is situated the town of Behar, the early Muhammadan capital which gave its name to the Province; and throughout the District are places which were visited and have been described by the Chinese Buddhist pilgrims, Fa-Hian and Hiuen Tsiang. The name of Patná is derived from *patana*, literally '*the*

town'; and Behar is simply the vernacular form of the Sanskrit *vihára* a Buddhist monastery.

In the modern history of the District, two events of special interes to Englishmen stand prominently out, and demand separate notice The one is known as the Massacre of Patná (1763), and the other i: the outbreak of the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857. The former occurrence which may be said to have sealed the fate of Muhammadan rule ir Bengal, was the result of a quarrel between Mír Kásim, at that time Nawáb of Murshidábád, and the English authorities. The Nawáb after much negotiation, had agreed to a convention which was alsc accepted by Mr. Vansittart, the Governor, that a transit duty of only ç per cent. should be paid by Englishmen, which was far below the rate exacted from other traders. This Convention, however, was repudiatec by the Council at Calcutta, and Mír Kásim, in retaliation, resolved tc abandon all duties whatever on the transit of goods, and to throw the trade of the country perfectly open—a measure still less agreeable tc the Company's servants.

In April 1763, a deputation, consisting of Messrs. Hay and Amyatt, was despatched from Calcutta to Monghyr, where the Nawáb had taken up his residence; but it was now too late for negotiation. Numerous and fierce disputes had arisen between the *gumáshtás* of the English and the Muhammadan officers; and there was much hot blood on both sides. An occurrence which happened at Monghyr, while Messrs. Hay and Amyatt were there, hastened the rupture. Mír Kásim seized and detained some boat-loads of arms which were passing up the Ganges to Patná, on the ground that the arms were destinec to be used against himself. On the 24th June, Mr. Ellis, the Com pany's chief of the factory at Patná, ordered his sepoys to occupy Patná city, which was done the following morning. In revenge, the Nawáb sent a force in pursuit of Mr. Amyatt, who had been allowec to return to Calcutta, Mr. Hay having been detained as a hostage Mr. Amyatt was overtaken and murdered near Kásimbázár. In the meantime the Company's sepoys, who had been plundering the city were driven back to the factory by the Muhammadans at Patná, a large number of them being killed. The remainder, only about 30c out of 2000 men, after being besieged for two days and nights fled in their boats to the frontier of Oudh, where they ultimately laic down their arms. They were then brought back to Patná, to whicl place had been conveyed Mr. Hay from Monghyr, the entire staff o the Kásimbázár factory, who had also been arrested at the first out break of hostilities, and some other prisoners.

As soon as regular warfare commenced, however, Mír Kásim's successe came to an end. He was defeated in two battles by Major Adams—a Gheriá on the 2nd August, and at Udhá-nálá on the 5th September

These defeats roused Mír Kásim to exasperation, and on the 9th September he wrote to Major Adams: 'If you are resolved to proceed in this business, know for a certainty that I will cut off the heads of Mr. Ellis and the rest of your chiefs, and send them to you.' This threat he carried out, with the help of a Swiss renegade Samru (whose original name had been Walter Reinhardt), on the evening of the 6th October. Mr. Ellis and others, according to a contemporary letter, were decoyed one by one out of the room where they were drinking tea at seven o'clock, and instantly cut down. The remainder took alarm, and defended themselves as best they could with bottles and plates, their knives and forks having been already removed. About 60 Englishmen were thus murdered, their bodies being thrown into a well in the compound of the house in which they were confined. It is said that 200 Englishmen were killed at this time throughout Bengal.

On the news of the massacre reaching Calcutta, a general deep mourning was ordered for the space of fourteen days, and minute-guns were fired from the fort and the fleet. A *lákh* of rupees (£10,000) was offered for the person of Mír Kásim, and £4000 for Samru. The subsequent war with the Wazír of Oudh, which was prolonged till May 1765, was to some extent occasioned by the refusal of the Wazír to surrender these persons, who had placed themselves under his protection. Mír Kásim is said to have died in great indigence at Delhi.

Samru took refuge with a succession of new masters, and was ultimately presented with the *jágír* of Sardhána in Meerut District; he died at Agra in 1778, leaving as his widow and heir the notorious Begam Samru. This lady endeavoured in her old age to make amends by charities for a long life of wickedness. She died in 1834, and by her will she devoted £15,000 to the foundation of a Clergy Fund and Poor Fund; and her name now stands first in Archdeacon Pratt's 'Endowments of the Diocese of Calcutta.' The litigation connected with her property was not finally settled till more than a third of a century after her death.

The other important event in the modern history of the District is the outbreak of the Mutiny at Dinápur, the military station attached to Patná city. For a full account of the events connected with the outbreak, the reader must be referred to the history of the period; only a very brief narrative can be given here. The three Sepoy regiments at Dinápur in 1857 were the 7th, 8th, and 40th Native Infantry, regarding whom General Lloyd, commanding at Dinápur, wrote expressing his confidence. They were accordingly not disarmed; but as the excitement increased throughout Behar, and stronger measures seemed in the opinon of the Commissioner, Mr. Tayler, to

be necessary, the General, while still apparently relying on the trustworthiness of the men, was unwilling to disregard the remonstrances of the European residents, and in July made a half-hearted attempt at disarming the Sepoys. The result was that the three regiments revolted and went off in a body, taking with them their arms and accoutrements, but not their uniforms. Some took to the Ganges, where their boats were fired into and run down by a steamer which was present, and their occupants shot or drowned. But the majority were wiser, and hastened to the river Son, crossing which they found themselves safe in Sháhábád, a friendly country, with nothing to oppose them but a handful of civilians, indigo-planters, and railway engineers, with a few Sikh soldiers, who might or might not prove faithful to their employers.

The story of what took place in Sháhábád will be found in the article on SHAHABAD DISTRICT. The news that the rebels, headed by Kunwár (or Kuár) Singh, the natural leader of the Rájputs of Behar, had surrounded the Europeans at Arrah, reached Bánkipur about the same time that the Commissioner was informed of the assassination of Major Holmes and his wife at Sagaulí, in Champáran, by his regiment of irregular horse, in whom he had rashly placed implicit trust. An attempt was made to rescue the Europeans at Arrah, but ill-luck attended the effort. A steamer, which was sent on the 27th up the river from Dinápur, stuck on a sandbank. Another steamer was started on the 29th; but the expedition was grossly mismanaged. While there was abundance of food on board, the men were left fasting. They were landed at the nearest point to Arrah at about 7 P.M.; and though the men were tired and hungry, they were pushed on till they fell into an ambuscade about midnight. The commander of the expedition, Captain Dunbar, was speedily shot down. The enemy were concealed in a mango grove, while the European troops, marching on a raised causeway, were terribly exposed. All was soon in confusion. When morning dawned, a disastrous retreat had to be commenced by the survivors of this ill-fated expedition. The enemy were all round them, the retreat became a rout, and had not the ammunition of the insurgents run short, hardly an Englishman would have escaped. As it was, out of the 400 men who had left Dinápur, fully half were left behind; and of the survivors, only about 50 returned unwounded.

But disastrous as was the retreat, it was not disgraceful. Individual acts of heroism saved the honour of the British character. Two volunteers, Mr. M'Donell and Mr. Ross Mangles, both of the Civil Service, besides doing excellent service on the march, made themselves remarkable by acts of conspicuous daring. The former, though wounded, was one of the last men to enter the boats. The insurgents had taken the oars of his boat and had lashed the rudder, so that though the

wind was favourable for retreat, the current carried the boat back to the river bank. Thirty-five soldiers were in the boat, sheltered from fire by the usual thatch covering; but while the rudder was fixed, the inmates remained at the mercy of the enemy. At this crisis, Mr. M'Donell stepped out from the shelter, climbed on to the roof of the boat, perched himself on the rudder and cut the lashings, amidst a storm of bullets from the contiguous bank. Strangely enough, not a ball struck him; the rudder was loosened, the boat answered to the helm, and by Mr. M'Donell's brilliant act the crew were saved from certain destruction. Mr. Ross Mangles' conduct was equally heroic. During the retreat, a soldier was struck down near him. He stopped, lifted the man on to his back, and though he had frequently to rest on the way, he managed to carry the wounded man for 6 miles till he reached the stream. He then swam with his helpless burden to a boat, in which he deposited him in safety. Both these civilians afterwards received the Victoria Cross as a reward for their heroism.

Population.—Several early estimates have been made of the population of Patná District; among them, one by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in 1807, which is interesting as corresponding in a remarkable degree with the results obtained by the Census of 1872. He estimated the population of nine police circles, which nearly correspond with the present area of the District, at 1,308,270 souls. In 1857 it was estimated at 1,200,000; and a later calculation reduced this figure to 900,000. The first regular Census in 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,559,638 persons. The latest enumeration in 1881 returned the population of Patná District at 1,756,856, showing an increase of 197,218, or 12·64 per cent., above that returned by the Census of 1872. The pressure of the population on the soil is greater in Patná (845 per square mile) than in any District of Bengal Proper, except the metropolitan District of the Twenty-Four Parganás and the suburban District of Howrah; and very little less than in the adjacent Behar District of Sáran (869 per square mile).

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2079 square miles, with 11 towns and 5624 villages, and 319,167 houses, of which 279,455 were occupied. Total population, 1,756,856, namely, males 858,783, and females 898,073; proportion of males, 48·9 per cent. Average density of population, 845 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 2·71; persons per town or village, 312, or excluding the 11 towns, 252; houses per square mile, 153·5; inmates per house, 6·3. Classified according to age and sex, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 330,872, and girls 321,670; total children, 652,542, or 37·1 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 527,911, and females 576,403; total adults, 1,104,314, or 62·9 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population consists of —Hindus, 1,541,061, or 87·71 per cent. of the total population of the District; Muhammadans, 213,141, or 12·13 per cent.; Christians, 2588; Brahmos, 16; Jains, 22; Jews, 14; Pársí, 1; and 'others,' 13. Of high-caste Hindus, there are 47,041 Bráhmans and 64,332 Rájputs. Ranking next after these two castes are the Bábhans, who are very numerous throughout the Patná Division, and number in this District 121,381. Their origin is much disputed. They claim in Patná to be *Sarwariá* Bráhmans, and they are also called Bhuinhár, and *zamíndárí* or military Bráhmans. Intermediate castes include Baniyás, 34,538; and Káyasths, 29,864. Among the lower or Súdra castes, the most numerous are the Goálás or Ahírs, the great herdsman class, of whom there are 217,845; and the Kúrmís, the principal agricultural caste, who number 194,222. Other Hindu castes include—Dosádh, 99,976; Koerí, 86,738; Kahár, 85,824; Chamár, 56,867; Telí, 52,880; Pásí, 37,146; Musahár, 36,858; Dhanuk, 36,530; Kandu, 32,177; Nápit, 29,165; Barhái, 26,360; Kumbhár, 24,069; Sonár, 23,313; Mallah, 19,099; Dhobí, 13,534; Nuniyá, 12,389; Tatwá, 12,333; Madak, 10,148; Kalwár, 8749; Garariá, 8355; Lohár, 8131; Sunrí, 7899; Tántí, 7158; Málí, 5611; Dom, 5594; and Támbulí, 5024. The total number of Hindus in the District who do not recognise caste is 4791.

The Wahábís form the most interesting section of the Musalmán community. They are a numerous body (although only 27 returned themselves as such at the time of the last Census), among whom are said to be included a few wealthy traders, though the majority belong to the lower classes. Many of them are fanatical in their opposition to both Sunnís and Shiás, though Wahábí-ism is really but a branch of the Sunní faith. Patná was first visited by Sayyid Ahmad, the leader of the Wahábí movement in India, about the year 1820. The Patná Wahábís were involved in treasonable practices in 1864–65; eleven persons were arrested and sentenced to transportation. For the Wahábí movement and State Trials, see the present author's *Indian Musalmáns*, 3rd ed. p. 105, etc.

The Christians, according to the Census of 1881, number 2588, or ·15 per cent. of the total population. Europeans number 1539, including the troops at Dinápur; Eurasians, 366; natives of India, 420; and 'others,' 263. By sect, the Christians include—Church of England, 1265; Protestants, without distinction of sect, 321; Roman Catholics, 640; Church of Scotland, 71; Baptists, 63; Methodists, 62; and 'others,' 166.

Town and Rural Population. — Ten municipal towns in Patná District contain a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants—PATNA CITY, population (1881) 170,654; BEHAR, 48,968; DINAPUR,

37,893; BARH, 14,689; KHAGAUL, 14,075; MUKAMA, 13,052; FATWA, 10,919; MUHAMMADPUR, 8479; BAIKUNTHPUR, 6424; and RASULPUR-MONER, 5769. NAWADA (population 3323) is also a municipality. Total urban population, 334,245, or 19 per cent., leaving 1,422,611, or 81 per cent., as the rural population of the District. Detailed accounts of the above-mentioned towns will be found under their respective names. The municipalities of the District contain a total population of 336,842; municipal income (1883–84), £16,913, of which £13,879 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9⅞d. per head. Patná city, in which the whole interest and importance of the District, and, indeed, of the Division, centres, is, after Calcutta, the largest river-mart in Bengal. It forms a busy changing-station, where the piece-goods, salt, and miscellaneous manufactures of Europe which come up from Calcutta by rail are transferred into country boats to be distributed throughout the neighbouring tracts, and where the agricultural produce of a wide area is collected for despatch to the seaboard. Trade, however, has decreased of late years, since the opening of the Tirhút and Gayá lines of railway have rendered warehousing at Patná unnecessary. Reference has already been made to the historical interest of the city, and to its identification with the ancient Pátaliputra. The civil station of BANKIPUR and the military cantonment of DINAPUR are situated within a few miles of the city of Patná proper. Among the numerous places of historic interest in the District may be mentioned :—RAJAGRIHA or Rájgir, the site of the capital of the ancient kingdom of Magadha; the hills of the same name, with their Buddhist remains; GIRIYAK, a place full of archæological interest; and SHERPUR, the scene of a large fair,—all of which see separately.

Of the 5635 towns and villages in Patná District, 3301 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1609 from two to five hundred; 561 from five hundred to a thousand; 129 from one to two thousand; 18 from two to three thousand; 7 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; 4 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 3 upwards of fifteen thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census classifies the male population of the Districts into six main divisions as follow—(1) Professional class, including all Government servants, civil and military, 16,804; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 49,408; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 35,585; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 233,950; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 76,230; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 446,806.

Agriculture.—Rice, which forms the staple of the District, is divided

into two great crops—the *kartika* or early rice, sown broadcast in June or July, and reaped in October or November; and the *aghání* or winter rice, sown after the commencement of the rains, and reaped in November or December. The *boro* or spring rice is also cultivated to a limited extent, being sown in November or December, and reaped in April or May. By far the most important of these is the *aghání* crop, of which 46 varieties are named. This rice is sown broadcast on land which has been previously ploughed three or four times; and after a month or six weeks, when the seedlings are about a foot high, they are generally transplanted. The crop requires irrigation. Among the other principal crops of the District are wheat and barley, Indian corn (*makái*), *khesárí*, gram, peas, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, a little mustard, several other oil-producing plants, and poppy. The last-named crop is one of the most important in the District, and will be referred to in detail in another section of this article (*infra*). All the poppy grown in the Province of Behar is manufactured at Patná city; and the area cultivated with poppy in Patná District amounted in 1881–82 to 25,314 acres. The out-turn in that year was 177 tons; average produce per acre, about 10 lbs. The rent of early rice lands producing also a second crop varies from 8s. to 12s. 9d. an acre; that of late or winter rice lands, which produce in general one crop only, from 9s. 6d. to 19s. an acre. All lands are irrigated, wherever possible; rotation of crops is not practised, except in the case of sugar-cane, which is never grown on the same field in two successive years.

Wages are low in Patná, as compared with Bengal generally. Day-labourers receive 3d. a day; agricultural labourers are paid in grain, representing a money wage of about 1d. a day; smiths and carpenters earn from $3\frac{3}{4}$d. to 6d. a day. Prices are said to have increased during the last twenty or thirty years, but the early figures are not available. The price of the best cleaned rice in 1870–71 was 6s. 10d. a cwt., and of common rice, 4s. 1d. In 1883–84, prices of food were higher than usual, owing to scanty crops due to unequal distribution of the rainfall. The average price of common rice throughout the year was $16\frac{7}{8}$th *sers* per rupee, or 6s. $6\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.; and of wheat, $19\frac{13}{16}$th *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Patná is subject to blights, floods, and droughts. Blights occur seldom, and on a small scale. Floods are caused by the overflowing of the Ganges and the Son (Soane); they are of frequent occurrence, but usually cause only partial damage. In 1842 and 1869, however, inundations caused extensive loss. The District was affected by the famine of 1866, but not to any serious extent; the maximum price of the best cleaned rice in that year was 15s. per cwt., and of common rice, 9s. 6d. Long-continued drought during the rainy season, followed by an almost total loss of rice in the

winter harvest and absence of rain when the spring crop is being sown, should, according to an official statement made in 1871, be considered as a warning of impending famine. If paddy were to sell in January or February at from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 3d. per cwt., it would be an indication of the approach of famine later in the year. There are abundant facilities for the importation of grain in case of distress.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres in Patná city, which is, as has been already stated, next to Calcutta, the largest river-mart in Bengal. Its central position near the junction of three great rivers, the Son, the Gandak, and the Ganges, where the traffic of the North-Western Provinces meets that of Bengal, gives it great natural advantages. It is also conveniently situated for the purpose of transport, either by river or railway, having a river frontage during the rains of from 7 to 8 miles, and in the dry months of 4 miles. The trade statistics will be found in the article on PATNA CITY. The total length of District and Provincial roads is 454 miles; total annual expenditure on all roads under the Department of Public Works, £9607. The East Indian Railway traverses the whole length of the District, entering it west of Barhiyá station, and leaving it at the Son bridge, a distance of 86 miles. During the scarcity of 1873–74, siding lines were laid down at Fatwá, Bárh, and Mukáma, to assist in the transport of grain. Of these the one at Bárh still remains, but the others have been taken up. Three newspapers are published at Patná; the most important is the *Behar Herald*, appearing weekly, and conducted by the native pleaders of the Patná bar.

Opium Manufacture.—Patná is one of the two places in British India where opium is manufactured by Government. The cultivation of the poppy is confined to the large central Gangetic tract, about 600 miles in length and 250 miles in breadth; it extends on the north to the borders of Nepál, on the east to Bhágalpur, on the south to Hazáríbágh, and on the west to Bareli District in the North-Western Provinces. This tract is divided into the two agencies of Behar and Benares, the former being under the charge of an agent stationed at Bánkipur, and the latter of an agent at Gházípur; both agencies are under the control of the Board of Revenue in Calcutta. In the Behar Agency in 1881–82, poppy was cultivated on an area of 297,162 acres, which yielded an out-turn of 1816 tons of opium. The Benares Agency, including the Oudh tract, into which poppy cultivation has recently been introduced, had, in 1881–82, an area of 249,049 acres under poppy, which yielded an out-turn of 1896½ tons of opium. The poppy cultivated is exclusively the white variety (Papaver somniferum album), and the crop requires great attention. The ground having been carefully prepared, the seed is sown broadcast in November; and by February the plant is generally in full flower, having reached a height

of from 3 to 4 feet. Towards the middle of that month the petals are stripped off; and four or five days after their removal, when the capsules have attained their utmost development, the collection of the juice commences—a process which extends from about the 20th of February to the 25th of March. A detailed account of the cultivation of the plant and the manufacture of the drug would occupy more space than can be here given, but the reader will find the subject exhaustively dealt with in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xi. pp. 146–154, where the processes of testing and examination, and the usual methods of adulteration, are described. The amount of produce from various lands differs considerably. Under very favourable circumstances of soil and season, the out-turn per acre may be as high as 41 lbs. of standard opium (*i.e.* containing 70 per cent. of pure opium and 30 per cent. of water), paid for at the rate of 5s. per lb.; but the average is from 10 to 16 lbs. per acre. The opium is made up into cakes weighing about 4 lbs., and containing about 3 lbs. of standard opium. These cakes are packed in chests (40 in each), and sent to Calcutta for exportation to China. The price which they fetch varies every year; the average for the five years ending 1882 was £129, 10s. per chest, the cost as laid down in Calcutta being £35, 10s. The variations in price were formerly excessive, but the Government is now careful to regulate the supply according to the demand.

Administration.—It is difficult to compare the revenue and expenditure of Patná for different years, because not only do the balance-sheets contain many items of account and transfer, but the changes which have taken place in the constitution of the District render comparison misleading or impossible. The net revenue in 1870 was £230,998, and the civil expenditure £72,228. In 1877–78 the revenue amounted to £253,707. In 1883–84 the six main items of Government revenue aggregated £290,758, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £146,054; excise, £78,854; stamps, £33,297; registration, £3204; road cess, £15,470; municipal taxes, £13,879. The civil expenditure of the District, as shown by the cost of officials and police, amounted in 1883–84 to £64,826.

The land-tax forms by far the most important item of revenue, amounting in 1877–78 to £146,564, or 57 per cent. of the total. Sub-division of estates has been carried out to a remarkable extent. In 1790 there were 1232 separate estates on the rent-roll of Patná District as then constituted, held by 1280 registered proprietors or coparceners paying revenue direct to Government; the total land revenue in that year amounted to £43,343. In 1800 the number of estates had already increased to 1813, the proprietors to 1976, and the land revenue to £50,280. In 1850, when the area of the District had been considerably increased, there were 4795 estates and 25,600

registered proprietors; the land revenue amounted to £121,352, or an average payment of £25, 6s. 2d. from each estate, and of £4, 14s. 9d. from each proprietor or coparcener. In 1866, the Sub-division of Behar, containing 796 estates, was attached to Patná; and in 1869, 19 estates were transferred from Patná to Tirhút. Including the net total of 777 new estates obtained by these changes, the number of estates on the rent-roll of the District in 1870–71 amounted to 6075; the number of registered proprietors had increased to 37,500, and the land revenue to £150,798, or an average payment of £24, 16s. 4d. from each estate, and of £4, 0s. 5d. from each proprietor. By 1883–84 the number of estates had further increased to 8318, and the registered proprietors to 67,287; total land revenue, £146,054, or an average payment of £17, 11s. 2d. from each estate, and £2, 3s. 5d. from each individual proprietor. Allowing for the increase in the size of the District by the addition of the Behar Sub-division, the number of estates has multiplied nearly five times since 1790; the land revenue has more than trebled; and where there was formerly one proprietor, there are now over fifty. There is reason to believe that the increase in the value of each estate during the same period has in all cases been large, and may in some instances amount to more than fifty times the estimated rental of 1790.

For police purposes, the District is divided into 18 *thánás* or police circles. The regular police consisted in 1883 of 1300 men of all ranks, including 751 municipal and 44 cantonment police, maintained at a total cost to Government of £18,373. In addition, there was in that year a village watch or rural police numbering 3124 men, maintained by the villagers and landholders at an estimated cost in money or lands of £9124. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 4424 officers and men, or 1 man to every ·47 square mile of the area or to every 397 of the population. The total cost of maintaining this force was estimated at £27,497, equal to a charge of £13, 4s. 7d. per square mile of area, or 3¾d. per head of population. The District jail at Patná, and subordinate prisons at Behar and Bárh, contained in 1883 a daily average of 256 prisoners, of whom 14 were females. Convicts numbered 230; under-trial prisoners, 21; and civil prisoners, 5.

Education has progressed rapidly in Patná. The number of Government and aided schools in the District in 1856–57 was 12, with 583 pupils; in 1860–61 the number of such schools was 10, and of pupils 515; and in 1870–71 there were 23 such schools, attended by 1530 pupils. Since that year education has rapidly advanced, owing principally to Sir George Campbell's system of grants-in-aid to primary schools. In 1874–75 there were, exclusive of Patná College, 309 Government and aided schools, with 9003 pupils; and in 1877–78

the number of such schools was 816, attended by 16,396 pupils. By 1883–84 the total number of schools in Patná District had risen to 2027, attended by about 27,000 pupils. The lower primary schools numbered 1452, with 19,658 pupils, and the unaided schools 512, with 5065 pupils. The Patná College was founded in 1862, and is the only institution for superior instruction in the whole of Behar. The number of pupils on the rolls in 1873–74 was 92, and in 1883–84, 165. The total expenditure on the College in 1883–84 amounted to £4664, of which £3411 was paid by Government, and the remainder, viz. £1253, was contributed by fees, etc. The total cost of each student in that year was £28, 5s. 4d., of which the Government paid £20, 13s. 5d. The Collegiate school attached to the College was attended by 639 pupils in 1883–84. Special schools comprise—a normal school, with 90 pupils in 1883–84; a law school with 53 pupils; a surveying school with 54 pupils; and a vernacular medical school with 145 pupils. No details are available with regard to girls' schools. Of the boys of school-going age, 1 in every 4·2 was attending school in 1883–84. The Census Report of 1881 returned 24,528 boys and 3874 girls as under instruction, besides 57,760 males and 7907 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Patná is considered remarkably healthy. The prevailing winds are east and west, in almost equal proportion. The average annual rainfall for a period of over 25 years is returned at 41·81 inches, the average for each month being as follows:—January, 0·71 inch; February, 0·57 inch; March, 0·37 inch; April, 0·32 inch; May, 1·60 inch; June, 6·72 inches; July, 10·42 inches; August, 9·61 inches; September, 8·33 inches; October, 2·82 inches; November, 0·21 inch; and December, 0·13 inch. In 1883–84 the total rainfall at Patná was 39·75 inches, of which 2·78 inches fell from January to May, 36·57 inches from June to September, and 0·40 inch from October to December. The annual mean temperature of Patná is 77·8° F., the monthly mean being as follows:—January, 60·9°; February, 66·0°; March, 77·3°; April, 86·8°; May, 88·6°; June, 88·4°; July, 84·8°; August, 84·1°; September, 83·9°; October, 79·7°; November, 70·3°; and December, 62·3°. In 1883 the thermometer ranged from a maximum of 110° F. in May to a minimum of 43·5° in December. The prevailing endemic diseases of the District are cholera in and about the city of Patná, and stone in the bladder. Small-pox and fever are also prevalent. There are 5 charitable dispensaries in the District, which in 1883 afforded medical relief to 2288 in-door and 47,205 out-door patients. The registered mortality of Patná District in 1883 was at the rate of 21·98 per thousand, the total number of recorded deaths being 38,633. [For further information regarding Patná, see *The Statistical Account of*

Bengal, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xi. pp. 1–222 (London, Trübner & Co., 1877); General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, vol. i. pp. 452–454 (London, 1871); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Patná.—*Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 25° 12′ 30″ and 25° 39′ N. lat., and between 84° 44′ and 85° 19′ E. long. Area, 617 square miles; villages, 1714; houses, 96,028. Population (1872) 521,336; (1881) 585,887, namely, males 285,895, and females 299,992, showing an increase of 64,551, or 12·38 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 504,061, or 86·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 81,264, or 13·7 per cent.; Christians, 523; Brahmos, 12; Jains, 8; Jews, 5; Pársí, 1; non-Hindu aborigines, 13. Proportion of males in total population, 48·8 per cent.; number of persons per square mile, 949; villages per square mile, 2·78; persons per village, 342; houses per square mile, 177·63; persons per house, 6·1. Patná Sub-division consists of the six police circles of Patná municipality, Patná, Bánkipur, Naubatpur, Masaudhi, and Páliganj. In 1883 it contained 8 civil and 10 magisterial courts, including the District head-quarter courts, a general police force of 779 men, and a village watch of 998 men.

Patná City (known to the natives as *Azímábád*).—Chief city of Patná District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 85° 12′ 31″ E., on the right or south bank of the Ganges; adjoining on the east BANKIPUR, the civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District. Area, 6184 acres. Population (1881) 170,654.

Early History.—The following section on the early history of Patná city is based upon General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, vol. i. pp. 452–454 (London, 1871). Patná has been identified with Pátaliputra, which, in spite of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's opinion to the contrary, is undoubtedly the same town as Palibothra, mentioned by the Greek historian Megasthenes, who came as ambassador from Seleukos Nikator to the court of Sandracottus or Chandra Gupta, at Pátaliputra, about the year 300 B.C. The foundation of the city is attributed by Diodorus to Herakles, by whom he may perhaps mean Balarám, the brother of Krishna; but this early origin is not claimed by the native authorities. According to the *Váya Purána*, the city of Pátaliputra, or Kusumapura, was founded by Rájá Udáyáswa, the grandson of Ajáta Satru. This Ajáta Satru was the contemporary of Gautama, the founder of the Buddhist religion, who died about 543 B.C.

According to Buddhist accounts, when Buddha crossed the Ganges on his last journey from Rájágríhá to Vaisáli, the two ministers of Ajáta Satru, King of Magadha, were engaged in building a fort at the

village of Pátali, as a check upon the ravages of the Wajjians, or the people of Vriji. At that time, Buddha predicted that the fort would become a great city. Upon this evidence, General Cunningham concludes that the building of Patná was begun then, but finished later, in the time of Udáya, about 450 B.C. According to the Hindu chronologies, Udáya was the thirty-seventh king of Magadha, dating from Sahadeva, who was contemporary with the great war of the *Mahábhárata.* The thirteenth in succession from Udáya was Chandra Gupta, who was reigning at Pátaliputra when Megasthenes, whose account of the city has been preserved by Arrian, visited the city. He says that the distance of Palibothra from the Indus is 10,000 stadia, that is, 1149 miles, or only 6 miles in excess of the actual distance. He proceeds to describe Palibothra as the capital city of India, on the confines of the Prasii, near the confluence of the two great rivers Erannoboas and Ganges. The Erannoboas, he says, is reckoned the third river throughout all India, and is inferior to none but the Indus and the Ganges, into the last of which it discharges its waters. Now Erannoboas is the Greek form of Hiranya-báha, which has been identified with the Son; and the confluence of this river was formerly much nearer Patná than now. Megasthenes adds that the length of the city of Palibothra was 80 stadia, the breadth 15; that it was surrounded by a ditch 30 cubits deep; and that the walls were adorned with 570 towers and 64 gates. According to this account, the circumference of the city would be 190 stadia, or 24 miles. Strabo, Pliny, and Arrian call the people Prasii, the Greek corruption of Palásíyá or Parásíyá, the men of Palása or Parása, which is a well-known name for Magadha, derived from the *palás* tree (Butea frondosa).

The next description that we have of Patná is supplied by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim, who entered the city after his return from Nepál, about 20th February 637 A.D. At that time the kingdom of Magadha was subject to Harsha Varddhana, the great king of Kanauj. It was bounded on the north by the Ganges, on the west by Benares, on the east by Hiranya Párvata or Monghyr, and on the south by Kirana Savarna or Singhbhúm. Hiuen Tsiang informs us that the old city, called originally Kusumapura, had been deserted for a long time and was in ruins. He gives the circumference at 70 *li*, or $11\frac{2}{3}$ miles, exclusive of the new town of Pátaliputrapura.

Little is known of the mediæval history of Patná. In the early years of Muhammadan rule, the governor of the Province resided at the city of Behar. During Sher Sháh's revolt, Patná became the capital of an independent State, which was afterwards reduced to subjection by Akbar. Aurangzeb made his grandson Azím governor, and the city thus acquired the name of Azímábád. The two events in the modern history of Patná city, namely, the massacre of 1763, and the mutiny of

the troops at Dinápur cantonments in 1857, have been described in the account of PATNA DISTRICT.

Description of the City.—Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in his MS. account of Patná city (1810), includes the whole of that part of Patná *parganá* which was under the jurisdiction of a *kotwál* and 15 *darogahs*, who were appointed to superintend the police of the 16 wards (*mahállas*) into which this area was divided. Each of these wards lay partly within the town; but some of them also included part of the adjacent country, consisting chiefly of garden land, with some low marshy ground that intervenes. The city of Patná, taken in this sense, includes the suburb of Bánkipur on the west, and Jafar Khán's garden on the east, an extent of nearly 9 miles along the bank of the Ganges. The width, from the bank of the Ganges, is on an average about 2 miles; so that the whole circumference includes an area of about 18 square miles. The city proper within the walls is rather more than a mile and a half from east to west, and three-quarters of a mile from north to south. It is very closely built, many of the houses being of brick; the majority, however, are composed of mud with tiled roofs, and very few are thatched. There is one fairly wide street, running from the eastern to the western gate, but it is by no means straight or regularly built. Every other passage is narrow, crooked, and irregular; and it would be difficult to imagine a more unattractive place. Still, every native who can afford it has a house in this quarter. In the dry weather the dust is beyond belief, and in the rains every place is covered with mud, while in one quarter there is a large pond which becomes very offensive as it dries up.

The old fortifications which surrounded the city had long been neglected in Buchanan-Hamilton's time, and have now entirely disappeared. The natives believe that they were built by Azím, the grandson of Aurangzeb; but an inscription on the gate, dated 1042 A.H., attributes the erection of the fort to Firoz Jang Khán. There are hardly any striking buildings; and a view of the town, except from the river-side, where some European houses are scattered along the bank, is decidedly mean. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton states that the only public works, except those dedicated to religion, were the Company's opium stores, a granary, and a few miserable brick bridges. The Roman Catholic church, in the middle of the city, was the best-looking building in the place. None of the Muhammadan mosques or Hindu temples was worthy of notice; some of the former were let to be used as warehouses. The number of houses in the whole city, as estimated by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, amounted to 52,000; of which 7187 were of brick, 11,639 of two storeys, with mud walls and tiled roofs; 53 with thatched roofs; 22,188 were mud huts, covered with tiles, and the remainder were mud huts covered with thatch. The population he

estimated at 312,000, or nearly double the present number, on an area twice as large.

One of the most curious buildings in Patná is the old Government Granary, or Golá, a high dome-shaped storehouse. This structure, consisting of a brick building in the shape of a bee-hive, with two winding staircases on the outside, which have been ascended on horseback, was erected in 1786 as a storehouse for grain. It was intended that the grain should be poured in at the top, there being small doors at the bottom to take it out. The walls are 21 feet thick. The following inscription is on the outside:—'No. 1.—In part of a general plan ordered by the Governor-General and Council, 20th of January 1784, for the perpetual prevention of Famine in these Provinces, this Granary was erected by Captain John Garstin, engineer. Compleated (*sic*) the 20th of July 1786. First filled and publickly closed by ———.' The storehouse never has been filled, and so the blank in the inscription still remains. During the scarcity of 1874, a good deal of grain, which if left at the railway stations might have been spoilt by the rain, was temporarily stored here. In times of famine, proposals are still made by the native press to fill the Patná Golá. But the losses from damp, rats, and insects, render such a scheme of storing grain wasteful and impracticable. The Golá is usually inspected by visitors on account of the echo, which is remarkably perfect.

The Patná College is a fine brick building, at the west end of the city. Originally built by a native for a private residence, it was purchased by Government and converted into courts for the administration of justice. In 1857 the courts were removed to the present buildings at Bánkipur; and in 1862 the College was established in its present place.

Proceeding farther eastwards, for about 3 miles, we arrive at the quarter called Gulzárbágh, where the Government manufacture of opium is carried on. The opium buildings are all on the old river bank, and are separated from the city by a high brick wall. In the neighbourhood are two small temples, which appear to be of great antiquity. One is used by Muhammadans as a mosque, and the other by Hindus.

Beyond Gulzárbágh lies the city proper. The western gate is, according to its inscription, 5 miles from the Golá, and 12 from Dinápur. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's remarks on the state of the city, with some modifications due to improved conservancy arrangements, are applicable to its present condition. South of the city, in the quarter called Sádikpur, a market has been made on the ground formerly occupied by the Wahábí rebels; but it is not much used by the inhabitants. Nearly opposite to the Roman Catholic church is the grave where the bodies of Mír Kásim's victims were ultimately deposited. It is

covered by a pillar, built partly of stone and partly of brick, with an inlaid tablet and inscription. The present European graveyard lies to the west of the city, just without the confines of Bánkipur.

The chief Muhammadan place of worship is the monument of Sháh Arzání, about the middle of the western suburb. He died here in the year of the Hijra 1032, and his shrine is frequented both by Muhammadans and Hindus. In the month of Zikad there is an annual fair held on the spot which lasts three days, and attracts about 5000 votaries. Adjacent to the tomb is the Karbalá, where 100,000 people attend during the *Muharram* festival. Close by is a tank dug by the saint, where once a year crowds of people assemble, and many of them bathe. The mosque of Sher Sháh is probably the oldest building in Patná, and the Madrása of Sáif Khán the handsomest. The only other place of Muhammadan worship at all remarkable is the monument of Pír Bahor, which was built about two hundred and fifty years ago. The Sikhs have a place of worship of great repute, called the Har-mandir, which owes its celebrity to its having been the birthplace of Govind Singh, the last great teacher of the sect. In spite of the antiquity of Patná, the total absence of ancient edifices is not to be wondered at, for quite modern buildings fall into decay as soon as they are at all neglected. Chahal Satun, the palace of the Behar viceroys, which in 1760 was in perfect preservation, and occupied by Prince Alí Jahán, afterwards the Emperor Sháh Alam, could in 1812 be scarcely traced in a few detached portions retaining no marks of grandeur. In the same year, the only vestige to be found of a court of justice, which had been erected in 1728, was a stone commemorating the erection, dug up in 1807, when a police office was about to be erected on the spot. A few gardens in and about Patná are cultivated with roses, for distilling rose-water; and some of them cover a third of an acre in extent.

Population, etc.—Patná city covers an area of 6184 acres, or 9⅝ square miles. As regards population, it ranks seventh among the cities of British India, and is second only to Calcutta among the cities of Bengal. Its population, which in 1872 was returned at 158,900, had increased by 1881 to 170,654, namely, males 83,199, and females 87,455. Hindus form the great majority, or 74·4 per cent., of the population, and in 1881 numbered 127,076, namely, males 62,581, and females 64,495. Muhammadans numbered 43,086, namely, males 20,456, and females 22,630; and Christians, 492, namely, males 162, and females 330. Municipal income (1883–84), £11,147, of which £9116 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅝d. per head of municipal population (173,251).

Trade.—The principal business quarters of the city, proceeding from east to west, are:—Márúfganj, Mánsúrganj, the Kilá, the Chauk with Mircháiganj, Mahárájganj, Sádikpur, Alábakhshpur, Gulzárbágh, and

Colonelganj. The following paragraphs are condensed from a memorandum prepared in the Bengal Secretariat:—

In the District of Patná, the principal mart is Patná city, a place of considerable importance as a commercial depôt. Its central position at the junction of three great rivers, the Son, the Gandak, and the Ganges, where the traffic of the North-Western Provinces meets that of Bengal, and another line of trade branches off to Nepál, gives it in this respect great advantages. It is conveniently situated for the purpose of transport either by river or railway, having a river frontage during the rains of from 7 to 8 miles, and in the dry months of 4 miles.

Mr. M. Rattray, the Salt Superintendent at Patná, who was deputed during the early months of 1876 to collect trade statistics of Patná city, has furnished an elaborate Report on the subject, showing the export and import trade, the places of shipment and destination, and the route taken by each kind of trade. The following paragraphs are derived from Mr. Rattray's Report, and the figures refer to 1875–76. The statistics for 1883–84 are given at the end of this article.

The city proper comprises the large business quarters of (1) Márúfganj, (2) Mánsúrganj, (3) the Kilá, (4) the Chauk with Mircháiganj, (5) Mahárájganj, (6) Sádikpur, (7) Alábakhshpur, (8) Gulzárbágh, (9) Colonelganj, and other petty *bázárs* too numerous to mention, extending westward as far as the civil station of Bánkipur. The mercantile portion of the city may be said to commence at Colonelganj, which is situated a short distance west of Gulzárbágh, and is the centre of a large trade in oil-seeds and food-grains. From here the other marts run eastward as far as the Patná branch line of railway, immediately adjoining which is Márúfganj, by far the most important of any of the marts in the city.

The influx of goods into Márúfganj, Colonelganj, Gulzárbágh, and the Kilá (in respect of cotton), is from northern Behar, the North-Western Provinces, and Bengal, with which these marts possess direct and easy water communication, and thus command a far larger supply than the inland marts of Mánsúrganj, Mahárájganj, Sádikpur, and Alábakhshpur, or any of the other petty *bázárs* remote from the river bank. The trade of these latter is more intimately concerned with the produce of the Districts of Patná, Gayá, and Sháhábád, which transmit large supplies of oil-seeds and grain by means of carts and pack-bullocks. Oil-seeds are disposed of wholesale to the few large export merchants of Márúfganj; the supply of grain, which consists principally of rice, is sold retail in the *bázárs* for local consumption.

The principal imports are cotton goods, oil-seeds, salt, saline substances (*khári*, *sájjí*, etc.), sugar (refined and unrefined), wheat, pulses, gram, rice, paddy, and other cereals.

The import of European cotton manufactures amounts to the large total in money value of £285,537, and the import of native manufactures to £3065. Of silk cloths, considering the size and wealth of the city, the value appears to be comparately small, viz. £13,040. There is a large import of gunny-bags (673,419 in number); and it is said that about two-thirds of these are re-exported with grain.

Irrespective of these imports, large quantities of salt, indigo seed, and various other kinds of merchandise are imported by rail, by merchants who have no agents or business connection in the city, and are residents of some other District. These articles are loaded into boats direct from the goods-sheds, and cannot be considered as forming a part of the regular import trade of the city. In a similar manner there are considerable exports of goods which have no connection with any of the business houses in the city, but are landed into waggons direct from boats.

By far the largest importing mart is Márúfganj, the merchants of which place may be said to possess a monopoly of the oil-seed trade, for their imports amount to no less than 728,237 *maunds*, or nearly two-thirds of the entire quantity imported into Patná. In respect to other staples also, this mart shows a large importation. The imports of refined sugar amount to 36,501 *maunds*. Mr. Rattray was informed by a respectable merchant of the city that, since the opening of the Jabalpur railway, a large portion of the produce of the North-Western Provinces, which used to be consigned to Patná, is now despatched by that line to Bombay.

The next mart of importance is Mánsúrganj, lying immediately south of Márúfganj. Being more of an inland mart, the supplies of Mánsúrganj are drawn for the most part from Patná District and other Districts to the south.

Colonelganj, a river-side mart, stands next in order, with imports brought almost wholly by boat from the Districts of North Behar and from Bengal. Other smaller marts for oil-seeds and cereals are Sádikpur and Mahárájganj.

Omitting the imports into the numerous petty *bázárs*, there remains the central business quarter of the Chauk, connected with which is Mircháiganj; and farther east the Kilá, also known as the cotton mart, for it imports 35,871 *maunds* of cotton out of a total of 38,271 *maunds* for the whole city. All these marts have a distinct trade of their own.

The importance of the Chauk consists in the variety and value of its imports. The principal import is cloth, of which a considerable trade is carried on by the Márwárís. European cotton goods, chiefly longcloth, to the value of £180,425 for the Chauk, and of £93,200 for Mircháiganj, are said to have been imported during the year 1875-76. The whole of this came by rail.

Before entering into an explanation of the figures, it is necessary to explain the particular character of the import trade of the city, which alone can account for the heavy imports by river. There are scarcely twenty persons in the city to whom the term 'merchant' can be strictly applied—that is, wholesale dealers with head-quarters in the city and agencies at out-stations, who carry on an import and export business entirely on their own account. The truth is that the bulk of the so-called merchants are, properly speaking, merely commission agents; and the general practice is for *bepárís* or dealers to bring merchandise to these agents, at a storehouse, termed an *arat*, where the grain is sold, the agent or *aratdár* merely receiving a certain percentage. In this manner, a considerable import trade passes through the hands of the *aratdárs* into those of the wholesale exporting merchants. It is said that nine-tenths of the oil-seeds and grain, when brought into the city, are deposited in some *arat*, where they are taken over by the *aratdár* on his own account at the then prevailing rates. Taking the trade as a whole, it may be laid down that most articles are passed on through the city from one mart to another. Thus, to take the important staple of oil-seeds, large quantities are landed at Colonelganj, where they are purchased by Mahárájganj merchants, who in their turn sell to merchants of some other mart, and so on till the goods finally reach the hands of the exporting merchant for despatch to Calcutta.

Possessing, as the city does, great advantages in the way of water communication, it is not surprising to find the imports by river much in excess of those by rail and by road. Importers of goods, to whom time is of little consequence, naturally select water carriage as being cheapest and most convenient; and there are of course certain classes of goods, such as bamboos, large and small, timber, firewood, hay and straw, rattans, mats and *golpattá*, which, from their bulky nature and comparatively small value, will not admit of any other mode of conveyance.

A very elaborate and interesting statement, enumerating no fewer than 86 places from which the Patná imports are derived, and giving the quantities received from each, is supplied by Mr. Rattray in the Report already referred to. A full condensation of that statement will be found in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xi. pp. 163–169.

The export trade, with the exception of oil-seeds and salt, is comparatively small, the most important article of export being oil-seeds, of which no less than 1,146,852 *maunds* were exported in 1875–76. The trade in this staple is in the hands of about a dozen merchants. Two European agencies in the city exported between them more than half the above quantity. Salt to the extent of 105,329 *maunds*, not quite half the imports, is the next most important item.

The railway has been very successful in attracting to itself the bulk of the export traffic. The total despatched by this route amounted to

1,105,659 *maunds*, the larger proportion of which consisted of oil-seeds, 979,047 *maunds*.

The total exports of such articles as are shown by weight amounted to 1,525,827 *maunds* for the city, or nearly half as much as the imports; of which oil-seeds account for 1,146,852 *maunds*, and salt 105,329 *maunds*. Apart from these exports, there is a sort of indirect export trade by no means inconsiderable, chiefly in cotton, spices, English piece-goods, cocoa-nuts, and tobacco, regarding which the merchants were unable to supply statistical information. By 'indirect' exports are meant goods purchased daily in small or large quantities by the *mahájans* and *baniyás* of the interior of Patná District and of other Districts of the Division, which unquestionably do form a part of the export trade of the city. It is impossible to state, even approximately, the quantity thus exported, but it is known to be considerable. Amongst other articles of export may be mentioned 200 *maunds* of tobacco despatched to Bombay, and 250 *maunds* to Calcutta. This is prepared tobacco for smoking, for which Patná is noted. The remaining exports from Patná are unimportant.

Trade in 1883-84.—The foregoing paragraphs give a general view of the trade of Patná in detail for the various marts in the city, and with particular reference to the year 1875-76. Since then, the trade, though maintaining the same general character, has very materially increased. In 1883-84, the total trade of Patná (including the civil station of Bánkipur and the military station of Dinápur) amounted in value to £10,495,763, namely, imports £3,892,184, and exports £6,603,579.

Patná Canal.—Canal in Patná District, Bengal, on the SON SYSTEM; branches off from the Eastern Main Canal in Gayá District, about 4 miles from the village of Bárun, where the Son is crossed by an anicut which diverts the water into the Eastern and Western Main Canals. The Patná Canal is designed to irrigate the country lying east of the Son. It is 79 miles in length, of which 36 miles lie within Patná District; and it commands an area of 780 square miles, or 449,200 acres, irrigated by water conveyed by distributaries. The course of the canal from its commencement is, in general, parallel with that of the Son; but shortly after entering Patná District it bends to the east, following an old channel of the Son, and joins the Ganges at Díghá, a village situated between Bánkipur and Dinápur. The canal was completed and opened throughout in October 1877.

Patná.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 5′ and 21° N. lat., and between 82° 45′ and 83° 40′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by the Borásámbar and Khariár chiefships, on the south and east by the Feudatory States of Káláhandí and Sonpur. Area, 2399 square miles. Population (1881) 257,959.

The country is an undulating plain, rugged and isolated, with ridges of hills crossing it here and there, and shut in on the north by a lofty irregular range. The soil for the most part is light and sandy. The principal rivers are the Tel, Ong, Suktel, and Sundar.

Patná was formerly the most important of all the Native States attached to Sambalpur, and the head of a cluster of States known as the *Athára Garhját*—'The Eighteen Forts.' The Mahárájá traces his descent through thirty-one generations to a race of Rájput princes of Garh Sambar, near Máinpurí. Hitambar Singh, the last of that line, having offended the King of Delhi, was killed, and his family dispersed. One of his wives, however, found her way to Patná, then represented by a cluster of eight *garhs* or forts, and there gave birth to a boy, who was called Rámái Deva. The chief of Kolágarh adopted the child, and eventually abdicated in his favour. Until this time, the custom had been for the Rájá of each *garh* to take it in turn to rule for a day over the whole; but when Rámái Deva's day arrived, he put the chiefs of the other seven *garhs* to death, and governed the eight *garhs* with the title of Mahárájá. He further strengthened his position by a marriage with the daughter of the ruler of Orissa.

During the three centuries which elapsed between the reigns of Rámái Deva and Báijal Deva, the tenth of the line, Patná obtained considerable accessions of territory. The States of Khariár and Bindrá Nawágarh to the west, Phuljhar and Sárangarh to the north, and Bámail, Gángpur, and Bámrá to the north-east, were all made tributary; while Rairákhol, with a tract of land on the left bank of the Mahánadi, was annexed. A fort was erected in the Phuljhar State; and Chandrapur *parganá* on the left bank of the Mahánadi was wrested from the ruler of Ratanpur. Narsingh Deva, the twelfth Mahárájá, ceded to his brother Balrám Deva all his territories north of the river Ong. Balrám Deva then founded Sambalpur, which soon afterwards, by the acquisition of territory in every direction, became the most powerful of all the hill States. Meanwhile, Patná declined; and though for some generations it continued to receive a certain allegiance from the surrounding States, it sank by degrees into insignificance, and until recently was one of the poorest of all. Some old temples on the banks of the Tel, and others at Rání Jhiriá, built, it is said, a thousand years ago by a pious Rání of the Chauhán caste, alone record the past greatness of Patná.

Rice forms the staple product, but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. For 30 miles round the town of Patná, a vast forest extends, containing *sál*, *sáj*, *bíjesál*, *dháurá*, ebony, and other woods, with small clearings here and there. These jungles are infested with tigers, man-eaters being common; wild buffaloes, bears, and

leopards are also numerous. Patná has no manufactures of importance. Iron-ore is found in many parts, but no mines are regularly worked. The only means of communication are a few bullock or pony tracks across the hills.

Area of State, 2399 square miles, with 1591 villages and 50,841 houses. Total population (1881) 257,959, namely, males 131,570, and females 126,389; average density, 107·5 persons per square mile. No separate return is given in the Census Report, showing either the ethnical or religious division of the people. The most common Hindu castes are Bráhmans, Mahantís, Rájputs, Agariás, and Kultás. The aboriginal tribes consist of Gonds, Kándhs, and Binjwárs. Of the total area of 2399 square miles, 550 square miles are returned as under cultivation; while of the portion lying waste, 950 square miles are said to be still available for cultivation.

In 1871, upon the death of the late Rájá leaving an infant heir, the State was taken under direct Government management, and is now in a very flourishing condition. The State is still under the management of the Government Political Agent, and the minor Rájá is a student at the Rájkumar College at Jabalpur. In 1876–77 the collections amounted to £4740, the expenditure to £2858, and the balance to nearly £2300, including the surplus of the previous year. The income of the State in 1883–84 amounted to £6440, and the expenditure to £5900, with an accumulated balance in hand of £6894.

The temperature is that of the plains generally, in the cold months being often as low as 45° F. at daybreak, and rising by mid-day to about 80° F. The hot season lasts from April to the middle of June, when the thermometer sometimes reaches 110° F. in the shade. Though the climate has a bad reputation, the inhabitants appear robust and healthy. Cholera frequently breaks out, especially in the larger villages.

Patná.—Chief town of Patná Tributary State, attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, and residence of the Rájá. Population (1881) 2053, namely, Hindus 2044, and Muhammadans 9.

Patná.—A small river rising in the Bhanrer range of hills in Sleemanábád *tahsíl*, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. After a northerly course of 35 miles, it falls into the right bank of the Bairmá river. For some distance the Patná marks the boundary between Panná State and Jabalpur District.

Pátri.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 7 villages, with 1 tribute-payer. Area, 40 square miles. Population (1881) 3877. Estimated revenue, £900; tribute of £523, 10s. is paid to the British Government.

Pátri.—Town in Viramgám Sub-division, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central

India Railway, in lat. 23° 11′ N., and long. 71° 50′ E., 58 miles west of Ahmadábád city. Situated in a bare plain on the border of the Rann of Cutch, surrounded by a wall and with a strong central castle. Population (1881) 6525. A town of rising importance; trade in cotton, grain, and molasses. Post-office.

Pattapattu (*Pettai*).—Town in Tinnevelli *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 43′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 7321, occupying 1575 houses. Hindus number 4283; Muhammadans, 2613; and Christians, 425. Post-office.

Patti.—Agricultural town in Kasúr *tahsíl*, Lahore District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 17′ N., long. 74° 54′ E., 38 miles south-east of Lahore city. Population (1881) 6407, namely, Muhammadans, 3869; Hindus, 1943; Jains, 421; and Sikhs, 174. Number of houses, 1091. Municipal income (1883–84), £448, or an average of 1s. 4½d. per head. Patti is an ancient town, and is mentioned in the itinerary of Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century. The town is walled, and the houses are mostly built of burnt bricks; streets well paved, and a good *bázár*. An old fort 200 yards north-east of the town contains the police station and rest-house. School. Patti forms a favourite recruiting station; the inhabitants are noted for their fine physique, and large numbers of them are serving in the army.

Patti.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sultánpur and Kádipur *tahsíls*, on the east by Jaunpur District, on the south by Allahábád District, and on the west by Partábgarh *tahsíl*. Area, 468 square miles, of which 217 are cultivated. Population (1881) 255,697, namely, 229,751 Hindus and 25,946 Muhammadans. The most thinly populated *tahsíl* in the District, the average pressure being 546 persons to the square mile. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 816. This *tahsíl* comprises the 2 *parganás* of Patti and Dalíppur, which are now joined together and returned as one; of the 816 villages, 695 are held under *tálukdárí*, and 120 under *mufrád* tenure, while 1 belongs to Government. Of the 695 *tálukdárí* villages, 680 are held by Báchgotí Rájputs in 23 estates; the remaining 15 composing a single estate held by Dirgbansis. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 41 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 712.

Pattikonda. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1134 square miles. Population (1881) 105,438, namely, 54,666 males and 50,772 females, dwelling in 107 villages, containing 20,755 houses. Hindus number 97,094: Muhammadans, 8231; Christians, 100; and 'cthers,' 13. The *táluk*

contains 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 20; regular police, 142. Land revenue (1883), £17,042.

Pattikonda. — Head-quarters of the Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 28′ N., long. 77° 4′ E. Population (1881) 3087, inhabiting 717 houses. Memorable as the scene of Sir Thomas Munro's death, from cholera, in July 1827. Post-office.

Pattukotai.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 909 square miles. Population (1872) 237,423; (1881) 244,717, namely, 117,871 males and 126,846 females, dwelling in 840 villages, and occupying 47,346 houses. Hindus number 221,556; Muhammadans, 17,066; Christians, 6093; and 'others, 2. In 1883 the number of civil courts in the *táluk* was 1, and of criminal courts 2; police circles (*thánás*), 13; regular police, 87 men. Land revenue, £19,205.

Pattukotai.—Town in Tanjore District, and head-quarters of Pattukotai *táluk*, Madras Presidency; situated 27 miles south-east of Tanjore town. Population (1881) 4677, occupying 809 houses. A sub-station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; a station of the Vicariate-Apostolic of Madura; police station, sub-jail, telegraphic and post offices, dispensary, and fort. The fort was built by Vijaya Rághaya (the last of the Náyak dynasty) in the 7th century.

Patuákhálí. — Sub-division of Bákarganj District, Bengal; comprising the 4 police circles of Patuákhálí, Bauphal, Gulsákhálí, and Gulachhipa. Area, 1231 square miles, with 1001 towns and villages, and 49,620 houses. Population (1872) 425,019: (1881) 426,758, namely, males 223,688, and females 203,070. Muhammadans number 342,112, or 80·1 per cent.; Hindus, 79,749, or 18·9 per cent.; Buddhists, 4723; and Christians, 174. Proportion of males in total population, 52·4 per cent.; average density of population, 346 persons per square mile; persons per village, 426; houses per square mile, 42·2; inmates per house, 8·6. Head-quarters at the village of Patuákhálí or Lankátí; lat. 22° 20′ 35″ N., long. 90° 22′ 45″ E. In 1883, Patuákhálí Sub-division contained 1 criminal and 3 civil and revenue courts, a regular police force numbering 81 men, and a village watch or rural police of 1088 *chaukídárs*.

Pátúr (*Patur Shaikh Babú*).—Town in Balápur *táluk*, Akola District, Berar. Situated in lat. 20° 27′ N., and long. 76° 59′ E., 18 miles south of Akola town, on the high road from Akola to Basim, and under the hills up which a pass leads to the Bálághát. Population (1881) 7219, namely, Hindus, 4994; Muhammadans, 2002; Jains, 221; and 'others,' 2. A rock-hewn Buddhist monastery is situated in the hill-side east of the town. Two other shrines in the vicinity, one Muhammadan and the other Hindu, are much resorted to. An annual Hindu

fair is held in January–February, lasting upwards of a month. A Musalmán fair, lasting for three days, is held at the shrine of Shaikh Babú. Weekly market, post-office, and inspection bungalow.

Paumben.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PAMBAM.

Paunár (*Pownár*).—Ancient town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 47′ N., and long. 78° 42′ 30″ E., on the river Dhám, 5 miles north-east of Wardhá town. Population (1881) 2495, chiefly agricultural. Hindus number 2268; Muhammadans, 189; Jains, 35; and non-Hindu aborigines, 3. The village contains a ruined fort in a strong position, and one of the large stone gateways of the old wall yet remains. Paunár forms the scene of some curious legends, which will be found in the article on WARDHA DISTRICT. It was formerly the chief seat of the Musalmán Government east of the river Wardhá; and under the Maráthás became the head-quarters of a *kamávisdárí* or revenue district. In 1807 the Pindárís plundered the town. Anglo-vernacular school.

Paung-deh (*Poung-day*).—Township in Prome District, Lower Burma; situated to the west of the Myit-ma-ka stream, which traverses the township from north to south, leaving a narrow strip between it and the In-daing, the name given to the long stretch of *In* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus) forest land lying between the Prome hills and the Myit-ma-ka. The country is undulating, and the eastern portion consists of a plain highly cultivated and under rice. The great high road from Rangoon to the northern frontier, and also the Irawadi Valley State Railway, traverse this tract. The chief river is the Myit-ma-ka, the head-waters of the HLAING river, which carries off nearly the whole drainage of the country. Its main tributaries are the Shwe-lay or Weh-gyi and the Kantha or Taung-nyo. Paung-deh now includes In-ma, once an independent jurisdiction. The In-ma lake is an extensive marsh about 10 miles long and 4 broad in the rains, with a depth of 12 feet. The Myit-ma-ka enters it in the north as the Zay. The township comprises 39 revenue circles, with a population in 1881 of 34,287, and a gross revenue of about £8400.

Paung-deh (*Poung-day*).—Chief town of Paung-deh township, Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 18° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 33′ 40″ E., on the main road from Rangoon northwards, 32 miles south of Prome town. Contains a court-house, market, police station, lock-up, charitable dispensary, the reformatory for the Province, school, etc. Station on the Irawadi Valley State Railway. Population (1881) 6727.

Paung-laung (*Poung-loung*).—Range of hills in Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma, forming the eastern boundary of Shwe-gyin District. The mountains are steep and densely wooded, and many rivers take

their rise here. Three principal passes cross the range—the northern runs up the valley of the Baw-ga-ta, and across the Thayet-pin-kin-dat hill to Kaw-lu-do, the northern police post in the Salwin Hill Tracts; the central passes up the valleys of the Mut-ta-ma and Meh-deh, and debouches at Pa-pun; and the southern route is from the Mut-ta-ma river to Pa-wa-ta on the Bi-lin.

Paung-lin (*Hpaung-lin*). — Township of Hanthawadi (formerly Rangoon) District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Population (1881) 49,526; gross revenue, £26,154. The Sittaung Valley State Railway traverses Paung-lin.—*See* HPAUNG-LIN.

Pauní. — Town and municipality in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 79° 40′ E., 32 miles south of Bhandárá town. Population (1881) 9773, namely, Hindus, 8760; Kabírpanthís, 29; Muhammadans, 838; Jains, 7; non-Hindu aborigines, 139. Municipal income (1882–83), £397, of which £342 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 8⅝d. per head. The town is surrounded on three sides by high ramparts of earth, in some parts crowned with stone battlements, and by a ditch; along the fourth side, to the east, runs the scarped bank of the Wainganga river. Two or three handsome stone *gháts* lead down to the river, which supplies the water used for domestic purposes; that drawn from the wells being generally brackish. The dense jungle in and around the town renders the place very unhealthy; and this fact, with the consequent removal of many of the wealthier inhabitants to Nágpur, has caused Pauní to decay. A considerable trade still takes place, however, in cotton cloth and silk pieces; and the finer fabrics manufactured at Pauní are exported to great distances. The town contains many old shrines, but the great temple of Murlídhar, though comparatively modern, is the only one of repute. Pauní has a large and flourishing Government school, police outpost station, post-office, dispensary, and small rest-house for travellers on the bank of the river.

Paurí (*Paori*).—Village and administrative head-quarters of Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 8′ 10″ N., long. 78° 48′ 15″ E. Residence of an extra-Assistant Commissioner and of a civil judge (*Sadr Amín*). Station of the American Baptist Mission. Anglo-vernacular school.

Pávagada.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Area, 567 square miles, of which 163 are cultivated. Population (1871) 66,250; (1881) 45,513, namely, 23,400 males and 22,113 females. Hindus number 44,586; Muhammadans, 842; Jains, 82; and Christians, 3. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £7504, or 1s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Soil sandy, and abounding with *talpargis* or subsurface springs of water. Crops—rice, *ragí*, *navane*, and horse-gram; exports—iron and rice. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1

criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 132.

Pávagada (or *Pámugonda*, 'Snake-hill').—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 6′ 23″ N., and long. 77° 19′ 8″ E., 60 miles east of Chitaldrúg town, at the southern base of Pávagada hill, 3026 feet above sea-level; head-quarters of Pávagada *táluk*. Population (1881) 1591. The residence of a line of *pálegárs*, whose founder lived towards the close of the 16th century. The existing fortifications were erected by Haidar Alí in 1777.

Páwagarh (or '*Quarter Hill*').—Hill fort in the Panch Mahals District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 31′ N., and long. 73° 36′ E., about 28 miles east of Baroda. An isolated hill surrounded by extensive plains, from which it rises abruptly to the height of about 2500 feet, being about 2800 feet above the level of the sea. The base and lower slopes are thickly covered with rather stunted timber. But its shoulders and centre crest are, on the south, west, and north, cliffs of bare trap, too steep for trees. Less inaccessible, the eastern heights are wooded and topped by massive masonry walls and bastions rising with narrowing fronts to the scarped rock that crowns the hill. To the east of Páwagarh lie the vast Bária State forests, and the hill seems to form the boundary between the wild country to the east and the clear open plain that stretches westward to the sea. On the east side of the north end of the hill are the remains of many beautifully executed Jain temples; and on the west side, overlooking a tremendous precipice, are some Musalmán buildings of more modern date, supposed to have been used as granaries. The southern extremity is more uneven, and from its centre rises an immense peak of solid rock, towering to the height of about 250 feet. The ascent to the top of this is by a flight of stone steps, and on its summit stand a Hindu temple and a Musalmán shrine.

The fortifications consist of a lower fort, a massive stone structure with strong bastions stretching across the less precipitous parts of the eastern spur. This line of fortification is entered by the Atak gate, once double, but now with its outer gate in ruins. Half a mile further is the Mohoti or Great Gate, giving entrance to the second line of defence. The path winds up the face of the rock through four gates, each commanding the one below it. Massive walls connect the gates and sweep up to the fortifications that stretch across the crest of the spur. Beyond the Mohoti Gate, the path for about 200 yards lies over level ground with a high ridge on the left, crowned by a strong wall running back to the third line of defence. This third line of defence is reached through the Sadan Sháh Gate, a winding passage cut through the solid rock, crowned with towering walls and bastions, and crossed by a double Hindu gateway.

In old inscriptions, the name of the hill appears as Páwakgarh, or 'Fire Hill.' The first historic reference to it is in the writings of the bard Chand (1022–1072), who speaks of Rám Gaur the Tuár as lord of Páwa. The earliest authentic account is about 1300, when it was seized by Chauhán Rájputs, who fled from Mewár before the forces of Alá-úd-dín Khilji. The Musalmán kings of Ahmadábád more than once attempted to take the fort, and failed. In 1484, Sultán Mahmúd Begara, after a siege of nearly two years, succeeded in reducing it. On gaining possession, he added to the defences of the upper and lower forts, and for the first time fortified the plateau, making it his citadel. In spite of its strength, it was captured in 1535 by the Emperor Hamáyún by treachery. In 1573 it fell into the hands of the Emperor Akbar. In 1727 it was surprised by Krishnají, who made it his head-quarters, and conducted many raids into Gujarát. Sindhia took the fort about 1761; and from Sindhia Colonel Woodington captured it in 1803. In 1804 it was restored to Sindhia, with whom it remained until 1853, when the British took over the management of the Panch Mahál District.

The constant cool winds that prevail during the hot-weather months make the hill at that season a favourite resort for the European residents of Baroda.

Páwangarh.—Hill fort in Kolhápur State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 48′ N., long. 74° 10′ 15″ E. The fort was stormed by a British force on 1st December 1844.

Pawáyan.—Northern *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Pawáyan, Jamaur, and Kánt. Area, 598 square miles, of which 358 are cultivated. Population (1872) 261,494; (1881) 245,454, namely, males 131,221, and females 114,233. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 223,408; Muhammadans, 22,028; and 'others,' 18. Of the 654 villages in the *tahsíl*, 508 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 108 from five hundred to a thousand; 37 from one to three thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue, £34,518, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £39,438. Rental paid by cultivators, £56,304. In 1883, Pawáyan *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 magisterial court; strength of regular police, 61 men; besides a village watch or *chaukídárí* force.

Pawáyan.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Pawáyan *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 28° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 80° 8′ 25″ E., 4 miles south of the Bhainsi river, and 17 miles north of Sháhjahánpur town. Population (1881) 5478, namely, Hindus, 4038; Muhammadans, 1423; and 'others,' 17. The sanitation, conservancy, and police of the town are provided for by a small house-tax. Charitable dispensary.

Páwí Mulándá.—*Zamíndári* or chiefship in Chándá District, Central Provinces, 16 miles east of Chámursí; comprising an area of 87 square miles, with 23 villages and 332 houses. Population (1881) 1681. Supplies excellent iron-ore; and the forests yield teak, ebony, and *bíjesál*.

Páyanghát.—The valley of the Purna river, in Berar, lying between 20° 27′ and 21° 10′ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 78° E. long., and running eastward between the Ajanta range and the Gawilgarh Hills like a long backwater or inlet, varying in breadth from 40 to 50 miles, and becoming wider towards the east. The surface of the valley rises and descends by very long low waves, the intermediate valleys lying north and south. At a point just beyond Amráoti, this formation is broken by a chain of low hills crossing the plain in a north-westerly direction, and changing the watershed from west to east. The Páyanghát contains the best land in Berar—the deep black alluvial soil, of almost inexhaustible fertility, called *regar*. Here and there are barren tracts, where the hills spread out their skirts far into the plain; or where a few outlying flat-topped hills, often crowned with huge cairn-like mounds, stand forward beyond the ranks to which they properly belong. Except the Purna, which is the main artery of the river system, scarcely a stream in this tract is perennial. The Páyanghát is very scantily wooded, except close under the hills. In the early autumn it is one sheet of cultivation, but in the hot season the landscape is desolate and depressing.

Payidipála.—Village in Golconda *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 38′ N., long. 82° 47′ E. Attached to the village are 10 hamlets, scattered over 5 square miles. Population (1871) 7797 and (1881) 6896, dwelling in 1490 houses. Hindus number 6805; Muhammadans, 88; and 'others,' 3.

Peddápur.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 552 square miles. Population (1871) 111,489; (1881) 124,314, namely, 62,088 males and 62,226 females, dwelling in 1 town and 187 villages, and occupying 25,282 houses. Hindus number 122,400; Muhammadans, 1901; and 'others,' 13. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 178 men. Land revenue, £22,650. The region is mostly jungle. Rice, sugar-cane, cotton, and gram are grown. Trade is carried on with Coconada.

Peddápur (*Pedápur*).—Head-quarters town of Peddápur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 4′ 55″ N., long. 82° 10′ 35″ E. Population (1871) 9202; (1881) 11,278, namely, 5573 males and 5705 females, occupying 2169 houses. Hindus number 10,664, and Muhammadans 614. The town lies 30 miles from Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Sub-magistrate's and District *munsif's*

courts; post-office, bungalow, and good market. Peddápur was formerly the head-quarters of a large *zamíndárí*.

Peerpointee.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* PIRPAINTI.

Pegu (*Pai-gu*).—Division of Lower Burma, comprising RANGOON TOWN, the Districts of HANTHAWADI (formerly Rangoon District), THARAWADI, and PROME, each of which see separately; also BRITISH BURMA and PEGU TOWN. The Division lies between 16° 1′ 40″ and 19° 55′ 20″ N. lat., and between 95° 12′ and 96° 54′ E. long. Area, 9159 square miles. Number of towns, 5; villages, 4425; houses, 205,416. Total population (1881) 1,162,393, namely, males 635,368, or 54·8 per cent., and females 527,025, or 45·2 per cent. Average density of population, 126·9 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·48; persons per town or village, 262; occupied houses per square mile, 22·5; persons per house, 5·7. Nearly the entire population, namely, 1,058,960, or 91 per cent., are Buddhists. Hindus number 46,742; Muhammadans, 28,159; Christians, 19,815; Nat-worshippers or non-Buddhist indigenous races, 8468; Brahmos, 11; Jews, 172; and Pársís, 66. Of the total number of Christians, European British and other European and American subjects number 3642; Eurasians, 3068; and Native converts, 13,105. Of the Native converts, 9643 are Baptists. The boat population numbers 23,851 persons, living in 4638 boats. As regards occupation, the male population were distributed into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 18,024; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 8688; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 44,882; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 196,818; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 59,458; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 307,498.

The total population dependent on the soil is 759,130, or 65·31 per cent. of the Divisional population. Total cultivated area, 2043 square miles, or an average of 1·72 acres per head of the agricultural population. The total area of cultivable land is 3973 square miles. Amount of Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £291,838, or an average of 4s. 4¾d. per cultivated acre. Chief crops of the Division in 1882–83—rice, covering an area of 1,371,329 acres; oil-seeds, 4681 acres; pulses, 1884 acres; cotton, 3097 acres; tobacco, 6255 acres; vegetables, 2457 acres; fruit-trees, 46,351 acres; *dhaní* palm, 1433 acres; chillies, 1051 acres. *Taungya* or nomadic tillage occupies 15,010 acres.

Total number of civil and revenue courts, 36; criminal courts, 41. Strength of regular police, 1605 men. Total length of navigable rivers, 716¼ miles, and of canals 37¼ miles; of made roads, 508½ miles; of the Irawadi Valley State Railway, 116 miles; and of the Sittaung Valley State Railway, 65 miles. Total number of schools under public management, missionary, indigenous, and private (1882–83), 2030; scholars, 53,047. The Census Report of 1881 returned 71,963 boys and 10,943 girls as under instruction; besides 251,817 males and 10,684 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal towns are—RANGOON (134,716), PROME (28,813), and PEGU (5891). Gross revenue (1882–83), £997,319.

Pegu (*Pai-gú*).—North-eastern township of Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Population (1877–78), 49,655; gross revenue, £27,116: in 1881, the population was 79,099, and the revenue £44,380. The north-western portion is mountainous and forest-clad; towards the south, the hills gradually sink into undulating ground, and end in level tracts partially cultivated with rice. The principal river is the PEGU, which flows first south-east and then south-west through the township. Its valley has an elevation of 1500 feet, and is intersected by deep ravines. The country north of the valley on both banks of the river is covered with dense evergreen forest. The centre of the township is traversed by the Paing-kyun, an artificially widened and deepened creek, communicating on the east with the Sittaung, and by a new locked canal with the town of Myit-kyo. A good road runs from Pegu to Rangoon, and another is being constructed from Pegu to Taung-gnu, to replace the old 'Royal road' made by the Peguan king, Ta-bin-shwe-ti, in the 16th century. The Sittaung Valley State Railway from Rangoon to Taung-gnu traverses the northern and western portions of the township. The villages are connected by good fair-weather tracks. The township is divided into 6 revenue circles; the chief town is PEGU. This township comprises the old Burmese jurisdictions of Pegu on the north-east, Zaing-ga-naing on the north-west, and Zweh-bun on the south.

Pegu.—Head-quarters town of Pegu township, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 17° 20′ N., and long. 96° 30′ E., on the Pegu river, 20 miles west of the Sittaung (Tsit-toung), and 46 miles north-east of Rangoon. Population (1881) 5891, namely, Buddhists, 5315; Hindus, 247; Muhammadans, 307; and Christians, 22. Contains court-houses, police station, market, post-office, and Government school. Modern Pegu lies close to the river bank. The ancient town was founded in 573 A.D., by emigrants from Tha-tun, headed by the two princes Tha-ma-la and Weh-ma-la, and was formerly the capital of the Talaing kingdom; the sovereigns of which at one time reigned over the whole valleys of the Sittaung and of the Irawadi (Irra-

waddy),—including Taung-gnu and Prome,—conquered Ava and the sea-coast as far as the Pak-chan, and successfully invaded Siam and Arakan. Across the river, and connected with the Pegu quarter by a substantial wooden bridge, over which runs the Rangoon and Taung-gnu road, is Zaing-ga-naing. Inside the old walls stands the great Shwe-maw-daw pagoda, an object of greater veneration to the Talaings than even the Shwe Dagon at Rangoon. The town is laid out with broad and well-metalled streets crossing each other, generally at right angles. The market is on the bank of the river, a little above the bridge. The court-houses are situated on the wall, which has been levelled east of the town. The houses are built of wood and bamboos, and are thatched or tiled. The town has more than once been burned down.

Pegu is described by European travellers in the 16th century as of great size, strength, and magnificence. Cæsar Frederick, who was here in the latter portion of the 16th century, according to the account given in Purchas, wrote:—'By the help of God we came safe to Pegu, which are two cities, the old and the new. In the old citie are the Merchant strangers and Merchants of the Countrie, for there are the greatest doings and the greatest trade. This citie is not very great, but it hath very great suburbs. Their houses be made with canes and covered with leaves or with straw; but the Merchants have all one House or Magazon which house they call Godon, which is made of bricks, and there they put all their goods of any value to save them from the often mischances which happen to houses made of such stuffe. In the new citie is the Palace of the King and his abiding place with all his barons and nobles and other gentlemen; and in the time that I was there they finished the building of the new citie. It is a great citie, very plaine and flat, and foursquare, walled round about and with ditches that compass the walls round about with water, in which ditches are many Crocodiles. It hath no Drawbridges, yet it hath 20 gates, five for every square: on the walls there are many places made for Centinels to watch, made of wood and covered or gilt with gold. The streets thereof are the fairest that I have seen, they are as straight as a line from one gate to another, and standing at one gate you may discover the other; and they are as broad as that ten or twelve men may ride abreast in them. And those streets that be thwart are faire and large; the streets both on the one side and on the other are planted at the doores of the houses with nut-trees of India, which make a very commodious shadow; the houses be made of wood and covered with a kind of tiles in forme of cups very necessary for their use. The King's Palace is in the middle of the Citie made in forme of a walled castle, with ditches full of water round about it. The lodgings within are made of wood, all over gilded, with fine pinnacles and very costlie

worke covered with plates of gold; truly it may be a king's house. Within the gate there is a fine large courte, from the one side to the other wherein are made places for the strongest and stoutest elephants.'

When Alaung-paya (Alompra) conquered Pegu in the middle of the 18th century, he used every effort to annihilate all traces of Talaing nationality. He destroyed every house in the town, and dispersed the inhabitants. His great-grandson, Bo-daw Paya, who succeeded in 1781, pursued a different policy; and in his time the seat of the local government was for some time transferred from Rangoon to Pegu. Symes, who visited it in 1795, thus describes it:[1]—'The extent of ancient Pegu may still be accurately traced by the ruins of the ditch and wall that surrounded it. From these, it appears to have been a quadrangle, each side measuring nearly a mile and a half; in places the ditch has been choked up by rubbish that has been cast into it, and the falling of its own banks; sufficient, however, still remains to show that it was once no contemptible defence; the breadth I judged to be about 60 yards, and the depth 10 or 12 feet; in some parts of it there is water, but in no considerable quantity. I was informed that when the ditch was in repair, the water seldom in the hottest seasons sunk below the depth of 4 feet. The wall was a work of magnitude and labour; it is not easy to ascertain what was its exact height, but we conjectured it at least 30 feet, and in breadth at the base, not less than 40. It is composed of brick, badly cemented with clay mortar. Small equidistant bastions, about 300 yards asunder, are still discoverable; there had been a parapet of masonry, but the whole is in a state so ruinous, and so covered with weeds and briers, as to leave very imperfect vestiges of its former strength.

'In the centre of each face of the fort there is a gateway about 30 feet wide; these gateways were the principal entrances. The passage over the ditch is over a causeway raised on a mound of earth that serves as a bridge, and was formerly defended by an entrenchment, of which there are now no traces.' After describing how ineffectual seemed to have been the endeavours to repopulate Pegu, Colonel Symes continues: 'Pegu in its renovated and contracted state seems to have been built on the plan of the former city, and occupies about one-half of its area. It is fenced round by a stockade from 10 to 12 feet high, on the north and east sides its borders are the old wall.[2] The plan of the town is not yet filled with houses, but a number of new ones are building. There is one main street running east and west, crossed at right angles by two smaller streets not yet finished. At each extremity of the principal street there is a gate in the stockade, which

[1] *Embassy to Ava*, p. 182 *et seq.*

[2] It thus included the Shwe-maw-daw pagoda.

is shut early in the evening; after that hour, entrance during the night is confined to a wicket. . . . There are two inferior gates on the north and south sides of the stockade.

'The streets of Pegu are spacious. . . . The new town is well paved with brick, which the ruins of the old plentifully supply; on each side of the way there is a drain to carry off the water.'

After the capture of Rangoon during the first Anglo-Burmese war, the Burmese commander-in-chief retired to Pegu; and his forces becoming thinned by desertion, the inhabitants rose against him and handed the place over to the British, who garrisoned it with a small body of troops. During the second war it was more stubbornly defended. Early in June 1852, the defences were carried by a force under Major Cotton and Commander Tarleton, R.N., the granaries destroyed, and the guns carried away. Without assistance, however, the inhabitants, at whose request the expedition had been sent, were unable to hold the town for a week, and the Burmese reoccupied the pagoda platform, and threw up strong defences along the river. In November of the same year, a force under Brigadier M'Neill was sent from Rangoon to retake the town, which was achieved after considerable fighting, and with some loss. The main portion of the troops were then withdrawn, and a garrison left of 200 men of the Madras Fusiliers, 200 of the 5th Regiment M.N.I., some European artillery, and a detail of Madras sappers, the whole being placed under the command of Major Hill of the Fusiliers. Hardly had Brigadier M'Neill retired when the Burmese attacked the garrison, but were driven off. The attacks continued; and in the beginning of December the enemy appeared in force, and Major Hill with difficulty held the position. A small reinforcement was despatched from Rangoon; but this was driven back, and forced to retire without communicating with the besieged. General Godwin, the commander-in-chief, then moved up the Pegu river in person with 1200 men, upon which, after some skirmishing, the Burmese retired; but as they remained in the neighbourhood, the force moved out against them and finally defeated them, driving them out of a strong position in the plains, where they had thrown up extensive entrenchments.

Pegu.—River in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; rises in lat. 18° N., and long. 96° 10′ E., on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma Mountains, and flows first south-south-east, past the town of Pegu, then south-south-west, and finally joins the Rangoon or HLAING RIVER, in lat. 16° 45′ N., and long. 96° 11′ E., near Rangoon after a total course of 180 miles. At its mouth it is about 1 mile broad, and can be ascended by large vessels as far as the Pu-zon-daung, where they take in cargoes of rice, cleaned in the steam mills on the banks of that stream. At neaps, the tide is felt as high as Pegu, and

during springs a bore rushes up the river almost as far. In the rains, the Pegu is practicable for river steamers up to Pegu town. It taps a country rich in teak and other valuable kinds of timber; and in the lower part of its course, it irrigates a considerable area under rice cultivation.

Pegu Yoma.—Mountains in Lower Burma.—*See* YOMA.

Pehoa (*Pihewa*).—Ancient town and place of pilgrimage in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 58′ 45″ N., and long. 76° 37′ 15″ E., on the sacred river Saraswatí (Sarsuti), 13 miles west of Thaneswar. Pehoa was anciently known as Prithúdaka, or 'Broad Water,' in allusion to the fact that when the Saraswatí is in flood, the low lands surrounding the town are covered with water. The place stands within the boundary of the Kurukshetra, and ranks second in sanctity to THANESWAR alone. There are no buildings with any claim to antiquity in the modern town. The old temples were probably destroyed by Mahmúd of Ghazní in the expedition in which he sacked Thaneswar. There are some very curious remains of old pillars, and the people point out places where they say that digging would result in the discovery of ancient sculptures. There is one curious old doorway profusely covered with male and female figures sculptured in high relief, and the remains of a much larger gateway in the same style, but much simpler in design. These probably belonged to a great temple of Krishna, whose image occupies the centre position in the lintel of both doorways.

The town was apparently forgotten as a place of pilgrimage until the establishment of the Sikh power in Káithal. It then revived, and the present temples have all been built within the last fifty or sixty years. The population of Pehoa town in 1881 numbered 3408, namely, Hindus, 2960; Muhammadans, 442; and Sikhs, 6. Number of houses, 481. Municipal income (1883–84), £351, or an average of 2s. 0¾d. per head. The palace, formerly occupied by the Káithal Rájá, is now used as a travellers' rest-house. A large annual fair for bathing in the Saraswatí ordinarily attracts from 20,000 to 25,000 pilgrims; but in 1873 as many as 100,000 attended. Widows assemble at the fair to bewail their husbands. The Saraswatí contains little water, but is dammed up to secure a sufficiency for the bathers; it, is, however, extremely filthy, and the stench at the close of the season becomes almost unendurable.

Peint.—Formerly a Native State, and now a Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Lying between 20° 1′ and 20° 27′ N. lat., and between 72° 58′ and 73° 40′ E. long. Area, 458 square miles, containing 221 villages. Bounded on the north by Surgána in Khándesh District; on the east by the Sahyádri Hills, which separate it from the Dindori and Násik Sub-divisions of Násik District; on the south by the

District of Thána; and on the west by Dharampur in Surat. Population (1881) 55,144 persons, namely, 28,546 males and 26,598 females, occupying 9524 houses. Hindus number 54,551; Muhammadans, 540; and 'others,' 53. A maze of hill and valley, except for some rice-fields and patches of rough hillside cultivation, Peint is over its whole area covered with timber, brushwood, and grass. Towards the north, a leading range of hills, passing westwards at right angles to the main line of the Sahyádri, gives a distinct character to the landscape. But over the rest of the country, ranges of small hills starting up on all sides crowd together in the wildest confusion, with a general south-westerly direction, to within 20 miles of the sea-coast, dividing the valleys of the Daman and Pár rivers. The heavy rainfall, the thick forest vegetation, great variations of temperature, and a certain heaviness of the atmosphere, combine to make the tract unhealthy. The prevailing diseases are fever and ague. The population consists almost entirely of forest and hill tribes, nominally Hindus, poor and ignorant, unsettled in their habits, and much given to the use of intoxicating spirits. Their language is a corrupt Maráthí with a large mixture of Gujaráthí words. A large part of Peint is well suited for grazing, and considerable numbers of cattle and sheep are exported. The chief products are timber of various kinds (including bamboos), rice, *náchni*, oil-seeds, beeswax, honey, elk-horn, and hides.

The ruling family, by descent Rájputs of the Powár tribe, adopted many generations back the family name of Dalvi. During the Maráthá supremacy, their estates were for a long period placed under attachment by the Peshwás. In reward for services rendered in 1818, as it was important, in so difficult and turbulent a country, to have a ruler of undoubted friendliness, the family were reinstated in their former position by the British Government.

The last chief, Abdul Momin *alias* Lakshadir Dalpat Ráo III., died in 1837, leaving only a legitimate daughter, Begam Núr Jahán, who died in 1878. The State was placed under British management on the death of the last male chief, but the Begam was allowed a life pension of £600 a year, in addition to one-third of the surplus revenues of the State. On the death of the Begam in 1878, the State finally lapsed to the British Government, and now constitutes a Sub-division of Násik District.

Harsúl, the former place of residence of the Begam, lies in lat. 20° 9′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E. In 1880–81, Peint Sub-division contained 3816 holdings, with an average area of 48½ acres, and paying an average assessment of 15s. 9d. The area under cultivation in 1880–81 was 149,120 acres; the principal crops being—grain crops, 90,827 acres, of which 62,258 were under *náchni* (Eleusine corocana);

pulses, 29,571 acres, of which 18,215 were under *urid* (Phaseolus mungo); and oil-seeds, 28,722 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 criminal court; 1 police circle (*tháná*); regular police, 32 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 155. Land revenue, £3393.

Peint.—Chief town of Peint Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency; the capital of the former chiefs of Peint State, which lapsed to Government on the death of the late Begam in 1878, but at present a very small place, and the head-quarters of the *mámlatdár*. Situated in lat. 20° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 29′ 35″ E., 32 miles north-west of Násik, and 10 miles north of Harsúl. Population (1881) 2644. Post-office, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow.

Pen.—Sub-division of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the north-east corner of the District; bounded on the north by Thána District; on the east by Poona; on the south by Roha; and on the west by Alíbágh. The chief river is the Amba, of which the water is sweet and drinkable from June until September. The soils are reddish and black. A large area of tidal swamps is used as salt-pans. Area, 290 square miles, containing 1 town and 198 villages. Population (1872) 63,363; (1881) 70,200, namely, males 36,221, and females 33,979, occupying 12,757 houses. Hindus number 66,670; Muhammadans, 2345; and 'others,' 1185. Land revenue, £15,524. The rainfall averages 100 inches. In 1881 the number of holdings was 7471, with an average area of 9¾ acres, paying an average assessment of £1, 19s. 2d. The survey rates were in 1858 fixed for a term of thirty years. The average rates are—for rice land, 7s. 9⅜d. per acre; for garden land, 6s. 2¾d.; for upland, 4½d. Of the Government area, namely 289⅓ square miles, 76,970 acres are returned as cultivable, of which 416 acres are alienated lands; 40,346 acres as uncultivable; 2749 acres as under grass; 17,378 acres as under forest; and 20,219 acres of village sites, etc. Total cultivated area in 1880–81, 41,259 acres, of which 325 were twice cropped. Principal crops—grain, 40,613 acres, of which 32,653 were under rice; pulses, 595 acres; oil-seeds, 311 acres; fibres, 26 acres; and miscellaneous, 39 acres. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 60 men.

Pen.—Chief town of the Pen Sub-division of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; situated 16 miles east by north of Alíbágh, in lat. 18° 43′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 8′ 40″ E. Population (1872) 6514; (1881) 8082. Hindus number 7302; Muhammadans, 458; Jains, 109; Christians, 8; Pársís, 4; and 'others,' 201. Pen is a municipality, with an income in 1883–84 of £624; incidence of taxation, 1s. 5d. per head. Sub-judge's court, post-office, dispensary, public library, and Anglo-vernacular school. Pen is connected with the Deccan by the Konkán road and the Bor Pass. Steamers from Bombay call daily at

Dharamtar ferry on the Amba river, 5 miles distant; and cargo boats up to 50 tons burthen come to Auturli or Pen Bandar, 1½ mile distant, at spring tides. The neap tide port, Báng Bandar, is 4 miles below Pen. Average annual value of trade for the eight years ending 1881–82 — exports, £66,991; imports, £33,493. In 1881–82 the exports amounted to £63,491, and the imports to £30,172. Pen is one of the two ports forming the Sakse (Sankshi) Customs Division. New water-works have been recently constructed at a cost of £2800.

Pená.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* PAINA.

Pench.—River of the Central Provinces; rising in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E., on the Motúr plateau in Chhindwárá District. It flows south-east to Máchágorá, noted for its fishery, thence south to the village of Chánd, near which it turns north-east, until stopped by the hills dividing Seoní and Chhindwárá Districts. It then flows nearly due south, till, after a total course of 120 miles, it joins the Kanhán river in Nágpur District (lat. 21° 17′ N., long. 79° 13′ E.). Principal affluent, the Kolbíra.

Penchalakonda.—Peak in the Veligonda Hills, Nellore District, Madras Presidency, and the highest point in the Eastern Gháts within that District. Lat. 14° 17′ N., long. 79° 28′ 45″ E.; elevation above sea-level, 3000 feet. Ancient pagoda on the hill, resorted to by numerous pilgrims and visitors.

Pendhát.—Village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Máinpuri town 29 miles north-west. Population (1881) 2419, namely, Hindus, 2238; Muhammadans, 86; and 'others,' 95. Noted for a great religious gathering, held on a movable date, at the shrine of Jokhaiya. Pilgrims come for the purpose of obtaining off-spring and easy child-birth.

Pendrá.—Northernmost chiefship or *zamíndárí* of Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated on the Vindhyan uplands. Though intersected by hills, it consists mainly of an extensive plateau. Area, 585 square miles, of which 40,000 acres are cultivated, and 300,000 returned as cultivable. Number of villages, 200, with 9888 houses. Population (1881) 43,868, namely, males 22,323, and females 21,545; average density of population, 75 persons per square mile. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and obtained the grant more than three centuries ago from the Haíhai-Bansí rulers of Ratanpur. Pendrá, the head-quarters (lat. 22° 47′ N., long. 82° E.), lies on the direct road from Biláspur to Rewá, along which a constant flow of traffic takes place in the cold months; it contains the ruins of a fort. A magnificent grove of mango trees, with spreading tamarinds here and there, affords a pleasant camping ground.

Pengangá (*Paingangá*).—River of Berar, having its source in the

hills beyond Dewalghát, on the west border of Buldáná District, in lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 2′ E. After its course through Buldáná, it forms the southern boundary of the Districts of Básim and Wún, as well as of Berar itself. A legend tells that it owes the sudden change in its direction to the north (up to that point easterly), which it takes near Mahúr, to Parasurám, son of the sage Jumdagni, who drove an arrow into the ground here. The spot is still held in great veneration; the falls there are known as Sahasra Kúnd or 'the thousand water caves,' and the river takes the name of Bandgangá. The vicinity is densely wooded, and before the British administration it was the resort of numerous plundering gangs. When the river takes a northerly direction, after a series of straight reaches, at rather steep angles, it rushes through a deep rugged channel, broken by rocks and rapids. At last it forces its way through the barriers of basalt into the open country, and joins the Wardhá at Jagád (lat. 19° 53′ 30″ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E.). It has many tributaries, the most important of which are the Arán (100 miles long) and the Arná (64 miles). The total course of the Pengangá exceeds 200 miles. The Sewandhri hills in the Nizám's Dominions are situated on its right bank.

Penner (or *Pinákini; Ponnaiyár; Pennár; Pennair*).—The name of two rivers in South India, which both rise near the hill of Nandidrúg in Mysore State, and flow eastwards through the Karnátik into the Bay of Bengal. Penner or Pennair is the name adopted by European geographers; but Pinákini, apparently derived from the bow of Siva, is that by which these rivers are known to the Kánarese inhabitants of Mysore.

(1) The Northern or Uttar Pinákini has its source in the Chenna Kesava Hill north-west of Nandidrúg, and after flowing in a northerly direction through the District of Kolár in Mysore, and the Madras Districts of Bellary and Anantápur, turns due east and passes through the Districts of Cuddapah (Kadapá) and Nellore, falling into the sea by several mouths 19 miles below Nellore town. Total length, 355 miles; area of drainage basin, 20,000 square miles; principal tributaries, the Pápaghni and the Chitrávati. The stream is useless for navigation, being liable to sudden freshets, one of which carried away an important railway bridge in 1874, and sent 18 feet of water over the crest of the Penner anicut or weir. The water is largely utilized for purposes of irrigation. In Kolár District, it is estimated that about 85 per cent. of the total drainage is intercepted by means of tanks and minor channels.

In Cuddapah District, a canal, constructed by the Madras Irrigation Company, connects the North Penner with the Kistna river. This canal, which was purchased by Government, and transferred on the 6th July 1882, has proved a financial failure. An anicut

or dam was erected across the river opposite Nellore town in 1855, in order to irrigate the fertile delta at the river mouth. In October 1857 the river rose to the height of 16 feet above the anicut, and did such damage that the anicut had to be rebuilt. The present structure, designed by Sir A. Cotton, was completed in 1863. The length of the anicut was increased by 150 yards in 1876, to lessen its liability to damage. This dam is 677 yards long, with a crest 9 feet above the bed, and 37½ feet above mean sea-level; it is capable of supplying 150 square miles, all on the right or south bank. The irrigation of the northern bank will be effected by the Sangam anicut. The greatest area yet irrigated (1882–83) is 63,653 acres, or nearly two-thirds of the whole area commanded. Total cost of Penner anicut up to 1882, £122,588; total receipts, £136,111. Outlay in 1882, £7465; receipts, £12,062. In November 1883, the Penner rose 19·3 feet above the anicut, the highest flood yet recorded. During the famine of 1877, it was proposed to construct a similar work at Sangam, about 30 miles higher up the river, and the work is now being carried out. Up to 1882–83, £80,207 had been expended out of a sanctioned expenditure of £356,904.

(2) The Southern or Dakshin Pinákini also rises in the hill of Chenna Kesava. It flows first in a southerly direction through the District of Bangalore in Mysore State, and then likewise turns east, and, after crossing the Madras Districts of Salem and South Arcot, falls into the Bay of Bengal, near Fort St. David, a few miles north of Cuddalore (Kadalúr) town. Total length, 245 miles; area of drainage basin, 6200 square miles. In Bangalore District, its waters are freely utilized for irrigation, being stored in large tanks. It is estimated that in its basin also about 85 per cent. of the total supply is thus intercepted. The Hoskot tank alone is 10 miles in circumference.

Pentakota.—Fishing village in Sarvassiddhi *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 19′ N., and long. 82° 35′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 1610; (1881) 1313, living in 248 houses. In 1875, 16 ships, with an aggregate burthen of 7000 tons, took on board produce, chiefly grain, to the value of £22,500. In 1879–80, 3 small native craft, of a burden of 143 tons, carried away exports to the value of £250, since which date the port seems to have been entirely abandoned as a seat of export trade. A bar closes the mouth of the river during the shipping season, and a wide stretch of marsh and sand impedes the landing of goods. The manufacture of salt, which till recently gave the place some importance, has likewise been discontinued.

Penukonda.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 655 square miles. Population (1881) 73,023, namely, 37,266 males and 35,757 females, dwelling in 1 town and 98 villages, containing 15,865 houses. Hindus number 68,006;

Muhammadans, 4983; Christians, 28; and 'others,' 6. The *táluk* contained in 1883, 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 62 men. Land revenue, £8291. Penukonda *táluk* is hilly; mixed and gravelly soils predominate. About 60 per cent. of the area is fit for cultivation.

Penukonda.—Head-quarters town of Penukonda *táluk*, Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 5′ 15″ N., long. 77° 38′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5331, inhabiting 1133 houses. Hindus number 4149; Muhammadans, 1160; Christians, 17; and 'others,' 5. Once an important fortress, to which the Vijayanagar prince retired after the battle of Tálikot (1565). It was a first-class *Paláyam*, and was dealt with as such in the Partition Treaty of 1799, and in early British revenue settlements. The fort is built on granite rocks, and the remains of its former greatness under Hindu and Musalmán rulers are still very striking. 'Dilapidated palaces,' writes Meadows Taylor, 'and other architectural remains, both Musalmán and Hindu, are here thrown together in strange confusion; and in some cases the most grotesque instances of these incongruous styles are found in the same structure. An ancient palace, called the Gangá Mahal, exhibits some strange tokens of these reverses. The basement is of plain massive Hindu construction, and of great antiquity, coeval apparently with some temples of Mahádeo, which stand close by it. The next storey is of more recent date, and is built in the best style of Muhammadan architecture, elaborately ornamented. Since its erection, it is evident that attempts have been made by the Hindus to alter the Musalmán devices into something which should assimilate with their own work. The very cupolas have been surmounted with inelegant pyramidal work; and a beautiful Saracenic screen, carved in white marble, has been mutilated, and in some parts replaced by some miserable representations of dragons and other grotesque monsters. The mosque of Sher Alí is perhaps the handsomest building in Penukonda, and, if erected by the chief whose name it bears, must be nearly 300 years old. It is of dark-grey granite, with mouldings of jet-black stone resembling hornblende. Behind this mosque the hill rises precipitously to the height of 500 or 600 feet, presenting a rugged and apparently inaccessible face, partially overgrown with stunted bushes and jungle. In other places, again, the naked rocks lie piled heap upon heap, with here and there perched on some giddy point a tomb, an altar, or a line of battlements, without an indication of the path by which it is to be approached.'—(Captain Meadows Taylor, *Oriental Annual*, 1840.) Some well-cultivated gardens lie near the town, in which grapes have been successfully grown. Head-quarters of an Assistant Collector. Post-office.

Pepali (or *Pyápali*).—Town in Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 15′ N., and long. 77°

48′ E., on the road from Gooty (Gúti) to Karnúl. Population (1881) 3535, dwelling in 746 houses. Deputy Collector's head-quarters; post-office.

Perambákam.—Town in Conjevaram *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 15′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 415, all Hindus, dwelling in 43 houses. Fourteen miles north-west of Conjevaram. A place of mournful memory, where the Madras army encountered its most serious disaster. In 1780, Colonel Baillie, marching from the north with a force of 3700 men, was here surrounded by Haidar's army, and his troops all but annihilated. The troops of Haidar were on this occasion guilty of the most barbarous atrocities, sparing neither the wounded nor the women and children with the defeated forces. In the following year, Sir Eyre Coote defeated Haidar Alí on the same spot, and drove him back on Sholingarh.

Perambalúr. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Perambalúr *táluk* is generally flat. The soil of the northern half is black clay, with large tracts of stiff black soil; in the southern half, as a rule, the soil is poor and the country rocky. The *táluk* is chiefly irrigated from tanks. The principal grains cultivated are *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), and *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum). Cotton covers an area of about 20,000 acres, or more than half the total area on which the crop is raised in Trichinopoli District. Area, 686 square miles. Population (1881) 172,281, namely, 83,052 males and 89,229 females, dwelling in 214 villages, and occupying 23,719 houses. Hindus number 164,607; Muhammadans, 4892; and Christians, 2782. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 59 men. Land revenue, £269.

Perambalúr. — Town in Trichinopoli District, and head-quarters of Perambalúr *táluk*, Madras Presidency. Situated almost in the centre of the *táluk*, on the old road from Trichinopoli to Madras. Population (1881) 3062, dwelling in 530 houses. Perambalúr is also the head-quarters of a District *munsif*. The water-supply is indifferent. Post-office; weekly market.

Perambúr.—Suburb of Madras city.—*See* MADRAS CITY.

Periakulam.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Madura District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1169 square miles. Population (1881) 232,123, namely, 112,251 males and 119,872 females, dwelling in 1 town and 85 villages, and occupying 36,369 houses. Hindus number 216,671; Muhammadans, 9885; and Christians, 5567. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 86 men. Land revenue, £26,332.

Periakulam.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency, and

head-quarters of Periakulam *táluk*. Population (1871) 15,339; (1881) 16,446, namely, 7670 males and 8776 females, dwelling in 2889 houses. Hindus number 14,564; Muhammadans, 1233; and Christians, 649. Periakulam consists of three villages or hamlets—Tenkarai, Vadakaria, and Kaikkulánkulam; situated on both banks of the Varáhanadí, about 45 miles west of Madura town, and about 35 south-west of Dindigal. Post-office.

Perim.—Island, situated in lat. 12° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 43° 23′ E. (King), in the narrowest part of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb; distant from the Arabian coast nearly 1½ mile, and from the African coast between 9 and 10 miles; greatest length, 3½ miles; average width, about 1¼ mile; circumference (following the sinuosities of the coast-line), probably more than 30 miles.

This island is under the Government of Aden; and the following account of it is taken from Captain F. M. Hunter's *Statistical Account of Aden* (1877), pp. 171, 172:—

'Perim is called by the author of *The Periplus* the island of Diodorus, and is known among the Arabs as Mayoon. The formation is purely volcanic, and consists of long, low, and gradually sloping ranges of hills, surrounding a capacious harbour, about a mile and a half in length, half a mile in breadth, and with a varying depth of from 4 to 6 fathoms in the best anchorages. The hills were formerly intersected by bays and indentures, which in the course of time have been filled up with coral and sand, and are now low plains, scantily covered with salsola, sea-lavender, wild mignonette, and other plants which delight in a soft sandy soil. These plains occupy about one-fourth of the island, and occur principally on the north side. The rocks, which are all igneous, are nowhere exposed, save where they dip perpendicularly into the sea; they are covered with a layer of volcanic mud of from 2 to 6 feet in depth, above which is another layer of loose boulders, or masses of black vesicular lava, in some places so thickly set as to resemble a rude pavement. The highest point of the island is 245 feet above the level of the sea. All endeavours to find water have failed, and but a scanty supply is procurable from the adjacent coasts. Water tanks were constructed, which used to be chiefly supplied from Aden, and it was proposed to erect reservoirs to collect the rain; but, as at Aden, a condensing apparatus was found more suitable.

'Perim has never been permanently occupied by any nation save the British. Albuquerque landed upon it in 1513 on his return from the Red Sea, and, having erected a high cross on an eminence, called the island Vera Cruz. It was again occupied for a short time by the pirates who frequented the mouth of the Red Sea, and who amassed considerable booty by plundering the native vessels engaged in the Indian trade. They formed a project of settling here and erecting

strong fortifications; but having with much labour dug through the solid rock to a depth of 15 fathoms in a fruitless search for water, they abandoned their design, and removed to Mary's Island, on the east side of Madagascar.

'In 1799, Perim was taken possession of by the East India Company; and a force under Lieutenant-Colonel Murray was sent from Bombay to garrison it, with the view of preventing the French troops, then engaged in the occupation of Egypt, from proceeding to India to effect a junction with Tipú Sáhib. But it was deemed untenable as a military position, and the Straits were too broad to be commanded by any batteries on the shore; the troops were accordingly withdrawn.

'In consequence of increasing steam navigation in the Red Sea, the attention of the Indian Government was directed to the necessity of a lighthouse to facilitate the navigation of the Straits. Perim was consequently re-occupied in the beginning of 1857. The lighthouse was completed in 1861, and quarters were also built for a detachment of native infantry, 50 strong, who now garrison the island under the command of a European officer. The detachment is relieved every two months when practicable.' For a complete account of the island, see *Description and History of the British Outpost of Perim*, by Lieutenant J. S. King, Bombay Staff Corps (1877).

Perim (The *Baiōnes* island of the *Periplus*). — Low rocky island, about 1800 yards long, and from 300 to 500 broad; situated in the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 72° 23′ 30″ E., 2½ miles off shore, and 4½ miles distant from Gogo. The island is surrounded by an extensive rocky reef on all sides, except the south, and rises so sheer from the bottom of the sea, that in some places, a few yards from the shore, there is a depth of 11 and 12 fathoms of water at low-water spring tides. The channel between Perim and a rocky reef in the centre of the gulf, only 1200 yards wide, has the extraordinary depth of 360 feet, the bottom being yellow clay. The island is composed of tertiary strata; at the south-south-east end is a cliff showing horizontal beds of pudding-stone, separated by sandy clay. None of the beds appear to dip, and none preserve a uniform thickness throughout the cliff, in one part of which the sandstone disappears altogether. The dry reef surrounding the island consists of confused heaps of rock mixed with mud, sand, and clay; the rock is chiefly yellow pudding-stone, in which, on the south-east end of the island, numerous fossil remains of large mammals are found. The coast is lined with sand-hills. The island has a lighthouse, erected in 1865. It is situated 8 miles south of Gogo, and consists of a brick masonry round tower with a spiral stone stair inside. The light has eight burners; height of lantern above high water, 100 feet. It is a single white fixed dioptric light of the fourth order, and is visible from the

deck of a ship 20 miles distant. For further nautical details, see Taylor's *India Sailing Directory*, part 1, p. 362.

Perindurai (*'Great Lord'*).—Group of hamlets in Erode *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency, with a station on the south-west line of the Madras Railway; distant 252 miles from Madras city. Lat. 11° 15′ 30″ N., long. 77° 37′ 30″ E. Population, 6347 in 1871; and 4948 in 1881, inhabiting 1131 houses. Formerly head-quarters of a *táluk*, now included in Erode *táluk*. The number of hamlets forming the group, which takes its name from the railway station of Perindurai, is 29, scattered over an area of 17 square miles. Perindurai has a court, post-office, police station, travellers' bungalow, and large market. The railway station is 4 miles distant from the hamlet of the same name.

Periya.—*Ghát* or pass in Malabar District, Madras Presidency, over which the road from Cannanore to Mánantavádi (Manantoddi) is carried. Lat. 11° 51′ N., long. 75° 50′ 20″ E.

Periyákúlam.—Town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PERIAKULAM.

Periyápatná (now called *Húnsúr*).—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 447 square miles, of which 157 are cultivated. Population (1871) 116,334; (1881) 113,050, namely, males 56,008, and females 57,042. Hindus number 106,909; Muhammadans, 5790; and Christians, 351. The Káveri (Cauvery) forms a great part of the western and some of the northern boundary. The Lakshmantirtha flows through the south-eastern portion. The highest hill is Bettadpur, 4350 feet above mean sea-level. The *táluk* is undulating and not well adapted for irrigation from channels; but the soil being generally of a rich red description, *ragí* and other dry crops thrive remarkably on it. Special crops—tobacco, areca-nut, and plantains. Land revenue (1883–84), £13,459. In 1883–84 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police stations (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 66 men; and village watch (*chaukídárs*), 401. Since 1865, the head-quarters have been at HUNSUR.

Periyápatná.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 20′ 40″ N., long. 76° 7′ 25″ E., 110 miles south-west from Bangalore, and 90 miles south-east of Mangalore. Until 1865, the head-quarters of Periyápatná (now called Húnsúr) *táluk*. Population (1871) 1321. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. An ancient place, with which the earliest Hindu traditions are connected, and formerly called Singa-patná. A king of the Chola dynasty is said to have constructed a tank and a temple here in the 12th century. In 1659, a mud fort was erected by a Coorg chief, which was shortly afterwards captured by Periyá Wadeyar, a general of the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. He built the large stone fort, which still exists in

ruins, and changed the name from Singa-patná to its present designation. During the reign of Tipú the town figures frequently in military history. It witnessed several contests between the Coorgs and the Mysore forces. On three occasions it was occupied by the British; and in 1791 many houses were burned by Tipú, in order to obstruct the advance of General Abercromby. It is chiefly inhabited by traders, who export cotton and tobacco to Coorg and the west coast.

Periyár.—The most important river in Travancore State, Madras Presidency, rising in lat. 10° 40′ N., and long. 76° 56′ E. It flows first north, and afterwards west, a total distance of 142 miles, falling into the sea near Kodungalúr. In its course to the low country, the Periyár is increased by innumerable tributary streams, of which the Mallái, Sherdhoni, Peringakotái, Mudrapalli, Kúndanpára, and Eddamalái are the most considerable. Its progress is often impeded by rocks and narrow gorges in the hills, with occasional falls, rendering the passage quite impracticable for boats above Narramangalam. The greater portion of the teak-wood, which is cut annually in the mountains, is floated down this river to the coast. On reaching Alwaye, the Periyár separates into two branches, the northern proceeding to Pallipur, while the southern branch, after leaving Varanpulái, again separates into two streams, one of which, however, is speedily lost in the estuary to which it flows through numerous channels; the other, continuing in a southerly direction, falls into the lake south of Tripunáthorái. Sixty miles of this river may be considered as navigable, small craft ascending as high as Narramangalam; and on that branch of it which is formed by the Eddamalái, river boats find a ready passage to Iddirarmaud. With the exception of the last 35 miles, the course of this stream lies through a complete wilderness, the populated tracts not extending beyond the town of Mulliatúr. A scheme, known as the Periyár project, for diverting the course of this stream across the watershed of the Gháts into the Vaigai river, in Madura District, is now (1884) being carried into effect.

Peruah.—Ruined town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* PANDUAH.

Perumakal ('*Great Travail*,' so called because Sítá bore twins here; the *Perumacoil* of Orme).—Village in Tindevanam *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 12′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 46′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1844, dwelling in 217 houses. It has a small fort, which is perched on a rocky hill, about 370 feet high. The summit is only 400 by 200 yards in area, and the ascent on all sides is difficult. After the defeat at Wandiwash (1759), the French, retreating on Pondicherri, threw a detachment into the Perumakal fort; Coote, following up the retreat, attempted to storm the place, but was repulsed from the upper fort; he led the attacks himself, and was

wounded, the native troops behaving with great gallantry. On the commencement of a more regular attack, the defenders, who had neither food nor ammunition, surrendered. The English held the post for twenty years, and in 1780 Haidar Alí besieged it unsuccessfully. Two years later it surrendered to him, only to fall before British troops in 1783. It was then dismantled, but remained a post of observation till 1790, when it was taken by Tipú. The nearest town is Tindevanam, 5 miles to the west.

Perungudi.—Town in Nanguneri *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 17′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 5575, occupying 1193 houses. Hindus numbered 2655; Muhammadans, 56; Christians, 2862; and 'others,' 2.

Perúr.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 58′ N., long. 77° E. Sometimes called *Mél* or Upper Chedambaram, to distinguish it from *Kil* or Lower Chedambaram in South Arcot. Notable for its temple.

Perzágarh.—Hill range in Chándá District, Central Provinces, dividing the Chímúr *parganá* from Brahmapurí; 13 miles long by 6 broad, and ending on the south in a scarped cliff, which can be seen 40 miles off. This cliff is called Perzágarh, and also Sát Bahiní, from seven sisters who lived in religious seclusion on its summit. Some of the valleys have patches of rice cultivation.

Pesháwar.—A Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, lying between lat. 32° 47′ and 35° 2′ N., and between long. 70° 34′ and 74° 9′ E. It comprises the three British Districts of PESHAWAR, HAZARA, and KOHAT, all of which see separately, together with the control of the semi-independent hill tribes inhabiting the Kháibar Pass as far as Lundi Kotál. Area, 8381 square miles. Population (1881) 1,181,289, besides 8173 tribesmen of the Kháibar Pass. Pesháwar Division is bounded on the west and north by independent mountain tribes, and by Afghánistan; on the east by Kashmír State; and on the south by Ráwal Pindi and Bannu Districts.

Population.—The population of the three Districts of the Pesháwar Division, which in 1868 was returned at 1,033,891, amounted in 1881 to 1,181,289, showing an increase of 147,398 persons, or 14·3 per cent., in thirteen years. Much of this increase is more apparent than real, and is due to temporary immigration caused by the extraordinary demand for labour that existed at the time of the last Census, owing to the Kábul campaign, and the railway and Swát canal works. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the Division, 8381 square miles; number of towns, 16, and of villages, 2224; houses, 177,574; families, 275,335. Total population, 1,181,289, namely, males 649,509, and females 531,780.

The proportion of males is 54·8 per cent., the unequal ratio between the sexes being mainly due to the large military element in the population. Average density of population, 140 persons per square mile, varying from 237 per square mile in Pesháwar, to 64 per square mile in Kohát District; persons per town or village, 527; inmates per house, 6·6. Classified according to sex and age, the Census shows —under 15 years of age, males 258,550, and females 215,909; total children, 474,459, or 40·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 390,959, and females 315,871; total adults, 706,830, or 59·8 per cent.

Religion.—The great bulk of the population, namely, 1,101,095, or 93·4 per cent., are Muhammadans by religion. Hindus number 68,992, or 5·8 per cent.; Sikhs, 6724; Christians, 4390; Jains, 44; Pársís, 39; and 'others,' 5. The Muhammadans by race, as apart from religion, include Patháns, 457,782; Sayyids, 27,526; Kashmirís, 27,195; Shaikhs, 19,102; and Mughals, 9988. Bráhmans number 9290, of whom 290 are Muhammadans by religion. Of the Rájputs, 9845 in number, 8086 are descendants of Hindu converts to Muhammadanism, as against 1755 Hindus and Sikhs. Of 21,228 Khattris, all but 36 are Hindus or Sikhs by religion. The other important tribes and castes, all containing a more or less mixed religious element, include the following—Awán, 179,214; Gújar, 74,668; Tanaolí, 41,384, and Bághban, 27,926, two Muhammadan clans or castes confined to the Pesháwar Division; Juláha, 29,038; Tarkhán, 24,390; Arora, 21,021; Lohár, 14,794; Kumbhár, 12,456; Nai, 12,068; Chuhra, 11,153; Karral, 10,294; Dhund, 20,091; Dhobí, 9180; and Ját, 6902. Of the Christian population, numbering 4390, Europeans number 4235; Eurasians, 74; and natives, 81. By sect, the Christians include—Church of England, 2693; Protestants undistinguished by sect, 129; Roman Catholics, 1150; Presbyterians, 121; and 'others,' 297.

Town and Rural Population.—The Pesháwar Division contains three towns with upwards of ten thousand inhabitants, namely, Pesháwar city and cantonments, 79,982; Kohát, 18,179; and Naushahra, 12,963; or a total of 111,124 for the three towns. Besides these, the Census returns thirteen other minor towns, with a population of 54,618; making an aggregate urban population of 165,742, or 14·03 per cent. of the whole population of the Division. Seven of the towns are municipalities, with an aggregate population of 110,811. Total municipal income (1883–84), £22,147, or an average of 3s. 11¾d. per head. The 2240 villages and towns are thus classified according to size—983 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 665 from two to five hundred; 333 from five hundred to a thousand; 156 from one to two thousand; 61 from two to three thousand; 33 from three to five

thousand; 6 from five to ten thousand; and 3 ten thousand and upwards. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population of over 15 years of age as follows—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 38,293; (2) domestic and menial class, 13,098; (3) commercial class, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 12,206; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 201,709; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 71,936; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, 32,470; and (7) occupations not specified, 21,247.

Agriculture, etc.—Of a total assessed area of 8311 square miles, or 5,319,359 acres, in 1883-84, the area under cultivation was returned at 1,488,055 acres, of which 245,924 acres were irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Of the remaining 3,831,304 acres, 191,427 acres are returned as grazing lands; 759,865 acres as still available for cultivation; and 2,880,012 acres as uncultivable waste. The principal crops cultivated in 1883 were—*Rabí*, or spring harvest—wheat, 499,689 acres; barley, 317,892 acres; gram, 26,217 acres; other pulses, 7579 acres; drugs and spices, 1830 acres; oil-seeds, 45,756 acres; and vegetables, 3154 acres. *Kharíf*, or autumn harvest—rice, 24,249; *joár*, 57,883 acres; *bájra*, 72,874 acres; Indian corn, 317,003 acres; other cereals, 7915 acres; pulses, 77,383 acres; drugs, 1036 acres; oil-seeds, 10,047 acres; cotton, 28,233 acres; sugar-cane, 10,680 acres; and vegetables, 2436 acres. The total amount of Government revenue assessment in 1883-84, including all local rates and cesses levied on the land, was £130,478, equal to an average of 1s. 6½d. per acre of cultivation, or 5¾d. per acre of total assessed area. The Kohát salt mines, 14 in number, are all situated in the Pesháwar Division. The only five mines, however, which are worked at present, are those at Jalta, Malgin, Nari, Kharrak, and Bahádur Khel, which yielded a Government revenue of £11,090 in 1883-84. There are 98 miles of metalled and 1389 miles of unmetalled roads in the Division, besides 47 miles of the Northern Punjab State Railway, which has its terminus at Pesháwar city. Water communication is afforded by 151 miles of navigable rivers.

Administration.—The civil administrative staff consists of the Commissioner of the Pesháwar Division, who is the principal local officer under the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, and whose head-quarters are at Pesháwar city. Under him are three Deputy Commissioners in charge of Districts; 2 Judicial Assistant Commissioners; 10 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners; 12 *tahsíldárs*; 3 *munsifs*; and 4 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 40 civil and revenue and 47 criminal courts. For administrative and police purposes, Pesháwar Division is divided into 11 *tashíls* or Sub-divisions, and 43 *thánás* or police circles. The total imperial

revenue in 1883–84 was £135,963, of which £94,525 was derived from the fixed land revenue.

Pesháwar.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 33° 43′ and 34° 31′ N. lat., and between 71° 25′ and 72° 47′ E. long. Pesháwar is the central District in the Division of the same name, and forms the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, extending from the river Indus to the Kháibar mountains. Area, 2504 square miles. Population (1881) 592,674. It is bounded on the north by the ranges which link the Sufed Koh to the Hindu Kúsh; on the west and south by continuations of the same mountains; on the south-east by the Indus; and on the north-east by the hills of Boner and Swát. It is thus almost entirely surrounded by independent hill tribes, all of whom are of Pathán origin. Pesháwar District is divided into six *tahsíls*, of which three lie to the east, and three to the west of the Swát and Kábul rivers. Of the former, Utmán Bulák lies to the east, Mardán in the centre, and Háshtnagar to the west. Of the three western *tahsíls*, Doába Dáúdzai includes the Doáb of the Swát and Kábul rivers and the plains on the right bank of the latter down to its junction with the former; Pesháwar *tahsíl* comprises all the western portion of the District; and Naushahra *tahsíl*, the territory on the right bank of the united Swát and Kábul rivers. The Mardán and Utmán Bulák *tahsíls* constitute the Sub-District of Yusafzai, which is in the separate charge of an Assistant Commissioner stationed at Hotí Mardán. Pesháwar stands twentieth in order of area, and seventeenth in order of population among the thirty-two British Districts of the Punjab, comprising 2·35 per cent. of the total area; 3·16 per cent. of the total population; and 5·28 per cent. of the urban population. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of PESHAWAR.

Physical Aspects.—The Pesháwar valley forms an irregular amphitheatre, shut in by hills on every side but one, with its base resting upon the banks of the Indus, into whose basin it opens through the narrow passage of the Kábul river. Its geological origin best explains the existing physical features, as the whole valley forms the abandoned bed of a great post-tertiary lake, whose outlet has slowly worn a way for itself through the barrier of hills which once shut it off from the Indus. At the present day, Pesháwar consists of a central hollow, filled up by alluvial deposits of silt and gravel, interspersed with water-worn boulders; while the Kábul river, which formerly supplied its deep mountain lake, now flows through a marshy level to its *débouchure* into the Indus, opposite the fort of Attock. At Nisatha, 24 miles from the point of exit of the Indus from the hills, that river receives through the Kábul the Swát river, which leaves the hills 21 miles north of the Indus. Opposite Naushahra, about the centre of the valley, the Indus

further receives, also through the Kábul, the Kalpání, by which the drainage of Swát is carried across the Yusafzai plain in the south of Pesháwar. From the south, the main affluent of the Kábul is the Bára, a stream which, passing close by the city of Pesháwar, enters the main river a few miles above its junction with the Swát. The depth of water in the Indus at Attock varies from 40 feet in the winter months to 75 feet in flood. The volume of the stream varies greatly according to the season of the year. It is crossed by three ferries, and also by a drift gallery excavated underneath the river bed. Both ferries and tunnel have, however, been superseded by the Punjab Northern State Railway bridge across the Indus at Attock, which was opened in June 1883, and which carries a cart road and footway within its girders. On the southern frontier, the Khattak hills rise to a general height of 3000 feet, while the bolder eminences sometimes reach an elevation of more than 5000. Westward, a still loftier range, reaching to between 6000 and 7000 feet in height, extends across the valley of the Kábul, and is threaded by the Kháibar Pass, the gate of North-western India. Mulla Ghar, the principal peak in this portion of the chain, has a height of 7060 feet. North of the Kábul comes the Hindu Kúsh system, here represented by bare and irregular hills of trap and limestone. Between them and the Indus, the barrier line is completed by the mountains of Swát, a labyrinth of intricate valleys, hemmed in by lofty precipices, amid whose mazes the villages of the occupying clans nestle, each in its separate nook. To the south of these uplands lies the plain of Yusafzai, where cultivated valleys run up into the hills on every side; but elsewhere, the tilled lands of the central hollow are separated from the mountains by a wide strip of stony country, some 3 or 4 miles in breadth. In Yusafzai Sub-District are two small isolated hills standing out from the plain. Karámár, the highest, lies north-east of Hotí Mardán, about 3480 feet above sea-level and 2280 above the plain. On its northern slope are a few fir trees; and the appearance of the hill on that side is green and pleasing, with a sloping plateau on the summit which, if water tanks were constructed, might be utilized as a sanitarium during the summer months. Panjpír, the smaller hill, rises to a height of 2130 feet above the sea, or 940 feet above the level of the surrounding plain.

The western and central portions, along the course of the Kábul and the Swát, are highly cultivated; while the remainder of the District, though unirrigated, produces excellent crops in ordinary seasons. The scenery of the western half is wild and beautiful; it abounds in craggy passes, crowned by ancient towers, and commanding prospects over fields of luxuriant vegetation. The numerous canals in the foreground give evidence of careful cultivation, and the background is formed by the snowy peaks of the distant ranges beyond the border. The eastern

extremity, consisting of the plains of Yusafzai and the slopes of the Khattak hills, is comparatively bleak and barren. The drainage of the entire valley is carried off by the Kábul river, the shrivelled representative of some mighty stream which once burst its way through the rocky barriers on the east into the main channel of the Indus. Its principal tributaries have been enumerated above, and it itself falls into the Indus opposite Attock. There are no lakes in the District; but owing to extensive percolation, large marshes are formed in many low-lying tracts in the neighbourhood of the Swát and Kábul rivers. There is also a large marsh near Pesháwar city.

Gold is found in both the Indus and Kábul rivers above Attock, and numbers of boatmen work as gold-washers. About 300 men are estimated to be thus employed, and they frequently work under a system of advances from gold purchasers in the city. The work is carried on during March and April, and September and October, the average earning of each man varying from 3d. to 6d. per diem. The proprietors of the villages within whose boundaries gold-washing is carried on, receive a small share in recognition of their right. Besides gold, *kankar* is the only mineral product of any value found in the Pesháwar valley, though the surrounding hills supply iron and antimony. The iron of Bajaur, brought for sale to the Pesháwar market, is of fine quality, and is used in the manufacture of gun barrels. Good antimony ore from Bajaur sells in Pesháwar for about £1, 10s. a cwt. A yellow description of marble, found near Maneri, in Yusafzai, is used for the manufacture of beads, charms, and ornaments. Crude chalk is found in Lundkhwar. Millstones are brought from Pallodheri, in Yusafzai, and fetch 2s. per pair.

The distribution of trees is singularly uneven in different parts of the valley. In Yusafzai and Háshtnagar, the mulberry (*tút*) sissu (*shíwa*) and Melia sempervirens, with occasionally the tamarisk (*gaz*), are found in clumps round the village wells; and here and there groves of the Acacia modesta (*pulosa*) cover village graveyards, whilst the waste lands support a bare and stunted jungle of Butea frondosa, different species of zizyphus, Capparis aphylla, and other thorny bushes; but otherwise the tract is bare of trees. In Dáúdzai and Doába, on the other hand, where the land lies low, and the cultivation is entirely from irrigation, trees are abundant, particularly the tamarisk and in some parts the *siris*. Here are numerous fruit-gardens and orchards, especially in the western suburbs of Pesháwar city, where the vine, fig, plum, apricot, peach, and quince, with cucumbers, melons, and other fruits and vegetables, are produced in great plenty.

Pesháwar is perhaps one of the worst Districts in India as regards sport, owing to the custom of hawking, the use of firearms by all classes, and the absence of forest and scrub. There are a few ravine deer in

the Yusafzai and Háshtnagar plains and also under the Khattak hills on the south-east. Hog abound in the Khattak hills, a few *uriál* (wild sheep) and a stray leopard are now and then heard of. On the Pajja hill there are *márkhor* (wild goat); but they are getting more and more scarce every year, and the ground is such that only good cragsmen can successfully follow them. The small game consists of a few hares and partridges still left in parts of the valley. *Chakor* and *sissi* are plentiful in and close under the hills, where the people cannot use their hawks. In the spring and autumn, large flights of quail settle down and remain for a short time on their way to India, and again when returning to the steppes of Central Asia. Many thousands are netted by men who make a trade of it; they are collected in one place by means of tame quail used as call-birds. Water-fowl are plentiful on the rivers during the winter months, and snipe also for two or three weeks in March. Wild swans are very occasionally shot. In Yusafzai, Naushahra, and under the hills all round the District during the winter months, flocks of sandgrouse are to be seen; but they are shy, and the only way of shooting them is by driving. The *obara*, or bastard bustard, is also found during the winter months; they are usually hawked and often noosed by the natives. Wolves and hyænas are less numerous than they used to be, and rarely attack children or other human beings. Foxes and jackals are also scarcer than they were a few years ago. The leopard has now almost disappeared from the District. Very large fish (*mahsír* and *rohu*) are caught by the natives in the rivers with hook and line, and the fly and minnow would give good sport. Otters are occasionally seen on the islands of the Indus.

History.—In the earliest days of Aryan colonization, the Pesháwar valley is said to have been occupied by a prince of the great Lunar race, whose name was perpetuated in that of Gandhára, by which the valley is known in Sanskrit literature. Its capital, Peukelas (or Pushkalavati), is mentioned by Arrian as a large and populous city, captured by Hephaistion, the general of Alexander, after the loss of its chieftain Astes. The site of Pushkalavati has been identified with the modern cluster of the Háshtnagar, or eight cities, on the left bank of the Swát, where vast ruins of ancient edifices are still to be seen. During the epoch of Buddhist supremacy in Northern India, Pushkalavati became famous as the seat of a *stupa*, erected on the spot where Buddha was fabled to have made one of his numerous alms-offerings in the shape of his own eyes. It is mentioned in the *Itineraries* of Fa Hian and Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrims of the 5th and 7th centuries, though by that time the capital of Gandhára had been transferred to Parasháwara or Pesháwar.

Until the middle of the 7th century, linguistic evidence would lead us to suppose that the population remained entirely Indian. But before

the beginning of the 8th century, a new race, the Afgháns or Patháns, make their appearance in the local annals; and the history of the Pesháwar valley becomes thenceforth that of a debateable ground, fluctuating between the eastern kingdom of Delhi and the western kingdom of Afghánistán. The Afgháns, who were still 'infidels' at this date, first effected a settlement in the hill country to the south of the Kábul river, by the aid of the Ghakkars of HAZARA and RAWAL PINDI; while the Hindu tribes continued to retain possession of Pesháwar itself, and of the Háshtnagar and Yusafzai plains. In 978 A.D., Jaipál, Rájá of Lahore, advanced from Pesháwar to attack Sabuktigín, governor of Khorásán, under the titular sway of the Samáni princes. Jaipál was utterly defeated, and Sabuktigín took possession of Pesháwar, which he garrisoned with 10,000 horse. On his death in 997, his son Mahmúd succeeded to his dominions, and, throwing off his nominal allegiance on the Samáni dynasty, assumed the title of Sultán in 999. Mahmúd was the first Musalmán conqueror of Hindustán, and fought many of his greatest engagements in the valley of Pesháwar. He succeeded in converting the Patháns to the religion of the Prophet; and they remained his firm allies in his subsequent struggle with Anang Pál, the last champion of the Hindu creed and nationality in the north, whose defeat on the plains of Chach in RAWAL PINDI laid all Upper India at the feet of the Muhammadan conqueror. After that event, Mahmúd made Pesháwar the basis of operations in his later invasions, and throughout the following century it continued to be a Province of the Ghaznivide empire. When the dominions of Ghazní extended as far as Lahore, Pesháwar became a half-way stage of great importance; but the devastations of Mahmúd seem to have left its northern plains a depopulated waste, occupied only by the tiger and the rhinoceros.

The first settlement of undoubted Afghán tribes in the central valley took place, apparently, about the 15th century; though a race of spurious Patháns, known as the Dilazáks, took possession of the plains not long after the time of Mahmúd. Meanwhile, the Patháns of Ghor had thrown off their allegiance on Ghazní, and after the death of Shaháb-ud-dín (1206 A.D.) the provincial governors of India declared their independence, making the Indus their western boundary, so that the Pesháwar valley was again cut off from the eastern kingdom. The Patháns of the Kháibar hills retained their autonomy, while Pesháwar itself was held by the Dilazáks. But about the close of the 15th century, the great tide of Afghán immigration flowed into the District under the following circumstances:—The Khakhai Patháns were a body of roving adventurers, who first came into notice in the time of Timúr, and made themselves useful to his descendant Ulugh Beg. The latter treacherously expelled them from Kábul, whereupon they entered the Pesháwar valley in three main clans—the Yusafzai, Gigiánis,

and Muhammadzai—and obtained permission from the Dilazáks to settle on a portion of their waste lands. Soon after, the new immigrants found or invented some cause of quarrel against their hosts, whom they attacked, and drove precipitately into the neighbouring District of HAZARA. The Gigiánis settled in the fertile strip of land about the confluence of the Swát and the Kábul; the Muhammadzais took Háshtnagar as their share of the spoil; while the Yusafzais were relegated to the northern plain, which still bears their name.

The division of the territory thus carried out, subsists undisturbed to the present day. For a while, the tribes remained independent; but in 1519, Bábar, who had used the Kháibar Pass in previous incursions, allied himself with the injured Dilazák chieftains, and subjugated the Pathán tribes who held these important mountain tracts. It would be tedious to follow the fortunes of Pesháwar through all the vicissitudes of the struggle between the dynasties of Bábar and Sher Sháh. Enough will be said in the simple statement that Pesháwar remained in the power of the Delhi court during the reign of Akbar, and that the remnant of the Dilazáks had been completely ousted in the previous reign. During the flourishing times of Jahángír, Sháh Jahán, and Aurangzeb, the valley rendered an unwilling allegiance to Delhi; but under the last-named Emperor, a national insurrection was successful in freeing the Pathán tribes from the Mughal supremacy.

In 1738 the District fell into the hands of Nádir Sháh; and under the succeeding Durání dynasty, Pesháwar was often the seat of the Kábul court. On the death of Timúr Sháh in 1793, Pesháwar shared the general disorganization of the Afghán kingdom; and the Sikhs, who were then in the first fierce outburst of revenge upon their Muhammadan enemies, advanced into the valley in 1818, and overran the whole country to the foot of the hills. In 1823, Azím Khán made a last desperate attempt to turn the tide of Sikh victories, and marched upon Pesháwar from Kábul; but he was utterly defeated by Ranjít Singh, and the whole District lay at the mercy of the conquerors. The Sikhs, however, did not take actual possession of the land, contenting themselves with the exaction of a tribute, whose punctual payment they ensured or accelerated by frequent devastating raids. After a period of renewed struggle and intrigue between Sikh and Afghán, Pesháwar fell at last into the hands of the Sikhs, who appointed General Avitabile as governor, and ruled with their usual fiscal severity.

In 1848, Pesháwar District came into the possession of the British; but the details of the war of occupation belong rather to the general history of India and of the Punjab than to the narrower annals of the Pesháwar valley. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Native regiments stationed at Pesháwar showed signs of insubordination, and were accordingly disarmed with some little difficulty in May 1857. But the

55th Native Infantry, stationed at Naushahra and Hotí Mardán, rose in open rebellion; and on a force being despatched against them, marched off towards the Swát Hills across the frontier. General Nicholson was soon in pursuit, and scattered the rebels with a loss of 120 killed and 150 prisoners. The remainder sought refuge in the hills and defiles across the border, but were hunted down by the friendly clans, till they perished of hunger or exposure, or were brought in prisoners, and hanged or blown away from cannon. This stern but necessary example prevented any further act of rebellion in the District.

Population.—The Census of 1868, which was the first trustworthy enumeration of the people, disclosed a total population of 523,152 persons, inhabiting an aggregate of 654 villages or towns, containing 121,256 houses. At the last enumeration in 1881, Pesháwar District was found to contain a total population of 592,674, showing an increase of 69,522, or 13·3 per cent., in thirteen years.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2504 square miles; number of towns, 11, and of villages, 679; houses, 87,720; families, 123,563. Total population, 592,674, namely, males 329,524, and females 263,150. The excessive proportion of males to females (55·6 per cent.) is mainly attributable to the large military element in the population, and also to the fact that at the time of the Census, an extraordinary demand for labour in connection with the Kábul campaign, the Northern Punjab State Railway, and the Swát Canal works, caused a large influx of labourers. Average density of population, 237 persons per square mile, or excluding large towns, 185 per square mile; average number of persons per town or village, 858, or excluding the towns, 683; inmates per house, 6·7. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 123,920, and girls 101,070; total children, 224,990, or 37·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 205,604, and females 162,080; total adults, 367,684, or 62·1 per cent.

In religion, the Pesháwar valley is almost entirely Musalmán, as might naturally be expected from its early conversion and its close connection with the Afghán kingdom. The Census returns show 546,117 Muhammadans, or 92·1 per cent.; while the Hindu faith has only 39,321 adherents, or 6·7 per cent. The remainder is made up by 3103 Sikhs, 4088 Christians, 39 Pársís, 3 Jains, and 3 'others.' By far the largest tribe in the District is that of the Patháns, who number in all 276,656 souls, or 46·8 per cent. of the total population. In the Yusafzai tract the Pathán population retain all the individual freedom, patriarchal institutions, and jealousy of personal aggrandizement, which are the original characteristics of the Afghán mountaineers. The Patháns to the south of the Kábul river, who

were more completely subjugated by the Sikhs, have lost many of their native traits; their chieftains have acquired a more feudal character, and the liberty of the Afghán freeman has been lost in the political supremacy of the chief. In their original state, the Yusafzai Patháns were divided into countless minor clans, each of which had a separate organization, and was often at feud with its neighbours; and the constant intestinal warfare compelled the men to plough their fields with a matchlock slung across their backs. Though British rule has altered this condition of affairs, it has not obliterated from the minds of the Patháns the lawless instincts produced by their ancestral customs. The Sayyids number 4515 souls, and their sacred character and descent gives them great influence amongst the fanatical Pathán population. Other tribes who are Muhammadans by race, as apart from Muhammadans by religion, include—Shaikhs, 9576; Mughals, 4538; and Kashmirís, 13,082. Of the Hindkis, or persons of original Indian descent, Awáns number 97,445; Bághbans, 21,240; Juláhas, 15,372; Gújars, 13,514; Tarkháns, 12,504; Kumbhárs, 7583; Chuhras, 7653; Lohárs, 6521; Dhobís, 5467; Chamárs, 4156; Mochís, 3263; Jhinwárs, 3956; Telís, 3250; Rájputs, 3181; and Sonárs, 3079. Nearly the whole of these are Muhammadans by religion and the descendants of Hindu converts. The principal Hindu castes, still retaining the faith of their fathers, are the Bráhmans, 3745; Khattris, 9578; and Aroras, 13,333; they form the chief trading community in Pesháwar and the other towns, while in each agricultural village a few of them carry on the business of money-lenders. Slavery still lingers on in the remoter villages under the guise of hereditary serfdom, in spite of the theoretical prohibitions of British law; and a recognised class, named Ghulám (slave), is returned in Pesháwar to the number of 3347, who are said to be the descendants of captives taken in war. They are still chiefly employed in domestic service, and are generally attached to their hereditary masters, though some of them have taken to shopkeeping and other occupations.

The Christian community includes 3954 Europeans, consisting principally of the troops comprising the garrison, and the civil officers of the District; 64 Eurasians; and 70 natives. Classified by sect, there are—Church of England, 2584; Roman Catholics, 1128; Presbyterians, 102; Episcopal Church of Scotland, 71; Wesleyans, 42; Protestants not distinguished by sect, 95; and 'others,' 66. Pesháwar has been a station of the Church Missionary Society since 1855, with a mission-house, church, fine collegiate school, and library. The mission also maintains vernacular schools both for boys and girls in Pesháwar city and in the District.

Town and Rural Population.—The Census Report of 1881 returns five towns in Pesháwar District as containing upwards of five thousand

inhabitants—viz. PESHAWAR City and Cantonment (population 79,982), NAUSHAHRA (12,963), TANGI (9037), MAIRA PARANG (8874), and CHARSADDA (8363). Six other places with less than five thousand inhabitants were also returned as towns, namely, UTMANZAI (4823), MARDAN (2766), SHANKARGARH (1367), FORT ABAZAI (220), FORT MICHNI (208), and FORT MACKESON (170). The total urban population thus disclosed amounts to 128,773, or 21·7 per cent. of the District population. Of the 690 towns and villages, 197 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 211 from two to five hundred; 135 from five hundred to a thousand; 77 from one to two thousand; 46 from two to three thousand; 19 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; and 2 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the adult male population as follows:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 22,622; (2) domestic and menial class, 7994; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7678; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 93,785; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 42,532; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, 22,831; and (7) occupations not specified, 8162.

Village Life.—In every Pathán village, a separate quarter (*kandi*) is apportioned to each different *khel* or clan, the *kandi* being a collection of separate tenements of the individual families forming the clan. Each *kandi* has its own *málik* or chief, whose authority is confined to it. His duties are to maintain order, settle disputes among the householders, collect the revenue, and see to the fair distribution of the crops, etc. Each *málik* is subordinate to the chief or *khán* of the tribe; to him he makes his reports, and from him receives his orders. Each *kandi* has its own mosque, its own assembly-room or *hujra*, and (in villages beyond the border) its own tower of defence or *burj*. The priests attached to the mosques are supported by rent-free lands, besides daily supplies of food from the residents of their *kandi;* and by presents of money, cattle, food, or clothes, on the occasion of a marriage or other special ceremony. The *hujra* is a public room with court-yard and stables attached, where the *málik* meets the residents of the *kandi* for the discussion and settlement of matters of public business, where guests are entertained, and where the residents and visitors assemble to smoke, gossip, and learn the news of the day. The *burj* or watch-tower now chiefly exists in villages beyond the border. It is always attached to the house of the *málik*, and is in constant use as a place of refuge and observation in case of feuds between the different *khels* of a village community, as well as against outside enemies. They are, however, still to be found in British territory as survivals from days gone by, when one ward was pitted against another in deadly feud, or when the whole

village had to guard against the attack of a neighbouring clan, or of Sikh officials. Many of them have now been converted into cattle sheds or ordinary dwelling-houses.

The villages have, for the most part, an air of great comfort, the court-yards being large, with, in most instances, a patch of vegetables or a clump of mulberry trees in the enclosure; the mosques and *hujras* are chiefly in the outskirts, with wells and groves in the vicinity. The houses in the plains villages are mostly constructed of mud, one-storied, and not more than ten feet high. In the Khattak hills, however, stone is plentiful, and is used for building purposes. The ordinary furniture of a house consists of a clay corn-bin, containing the grain required for immediate consumption; a few rough beds and stools, a wooden clothes chest, and a number of earthen dishes. The houses of the village head-men are generally distinguished by their greater privacy and more substantial look; many have small flower or fruit gardens attached to them.

The food of the common people is plain and simple, and consists almost entirely of the produce of their cattle and lands, such as wheat and barley cakes, milk, vegetables, pot-herbs, and edible wild fruits, but seldom meat. The richer classes, however, frequently indulge in meat, fowls, and rice, and occasionally tea. Sugar, and in some parts wild honey, is much used, but spirituous liquors are unknown. Tobacco for chewing, smoking, and snuffing, is largely used. The dress of the agriculturists consists of a turban or *pagri* of white cloth, a loose coat or shirt, and a loose pair of cotton drawers, tied round the body by a running string; the whole is of coarse country cotton cloth, costing from 4s. to 5s. The coats are often coloured blue to hide the dirt and save washing, and are worn sometimes till they drop to pieces. The chiefs and well to-do classes wear the same pattern of clothes, but made of finer materials. In winter, the poorer classes wear sheepskin coats; and the better classes woollen *chogas*. As a whole, the Patháns are singularly indifferent to cleanliness, either in their clothing or persons.

Agriculture.—Of a total assessed area of 1,600,993 acres, 847,390 acres were returned as under cultivation in 1883, while 330,959 acres were shown as cultivable, and 422,644 acres as uncultivable waste. The staple crops, and the area under each, in 1883–84 were as follows:—*Rabí* or spring harvest—wheat, 277,730 acres; barley, 233,044 acres; pulses, 4583 acres; oil-seeds, 31,602 acres; vegetables, 2157 acres: *Kharíf* or autumn harvest—maize, 98,359 acres; millets, 56,913 acres; pulses, 25,756 acres; rice, 9959 acres; cotton, 16,849 acres; sugar-cane, 9496 acres; oil-seeds, 7761 acres; vegetables, 2013 acres. It will be seen that food-stuffs form the principal products, and that the raw materials of manufacture are little grown. Agricultural knowledge is very backward; rotation of crops being only known in its simplest

elements. Irrigation is practised to a considerable extent, as many as 180,286 acres being supplied with water from private works in 1883; while the lands in the neighbourhood of the Swát and Kábul rivers are saturated with moisture from numerous channels. The out-turn per acre of the principal staples was returned as follows in 1883-84:—Rice, 960 lbs.; cotton, 120 lbs.; tobacco, 124 lbs.; wheat, 620 lbs.; inferior grains, 400 lbs.; oil-seeds, 560 lbs. The tenures of land belong to the standard Punjab types, that of *pattidárí*, pure or mixed, immensely preponderating. Most of the soil is held by tenants-at-will, only about one-sixth of the cultivators having acquired rights of occupancy. The total amount of Government land revenue assessment in 1883-84 amounted to £86,604, equal to an average of 2s. 0½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 0⅞d. per acre of total area. Rents vary in accordance with the nature of the crop for which the soil is suited, as well as according to the productive qualities of the soil itself; in 1883-84 they ruled as follows:—Rice lands from 10s. to £2, 8s.; cotton lands, from 6s. to £2, 8s.; wheat lands, irrigated, from 10s. to £1, 10s.—unirrigated, from 4s. to £1, 2s.; inferior grains, irrigated, from 4s. to 18s.—unirrigated, from 2s. to 18s. In the same year, wages were returned at the following rates:—Unskilled workmen, from 4½d. to 7d. per diem; skilled workmen, from 1s. 6d. to 2s. per diem. In 1883, prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows:—Wheat, 19½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 9d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *joár*, 36¼ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt. As the rivers are fed by the melting snows of the Hindu Kúsh and other mountain ranges, Pesháwar is not entirely dependent on the local rainfall, and is consequently to a great extent secure from the danger of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres in the town of Pesháwar, and is far less extensive than might be expected from its position on the great highway between India and the Central Asiatic kingdoms. The principal foreign markets with which the District deals are Kábul and Bokhára; but the greater part of the traffic merely passes through Pesháwar, and is not arrested on its direct course to the Punjab. An endeavour was made some years since to constitute Pesháwar its main entrepôt, by means of a yearly fair; but the enterprise did not prove successful. The imports from Kábul consist of horses, raw silk, worsted, cochineal, drugs, and other miscellaneous goods, for re-exportation to the south and east. Bokhára supplies gold bullion and gold or silver thread, the latter of which is handed on to the traders of Kashmír (Cashmere), while the bullion goes to Bombay. The return trade from Hindustán includes English piece-goods, cambrics, silk, sugar, and spices; while that from Kashmír is confined to the single item of shawls. The local manufactures comprise cutlery, and weapons, scarves, copper chasing, plain embroidery, snuff, and

coarse cloth. The Pesháwar scarves are celebrated throughout India for their fine texture and tasteful colouring. Pesháwar is one of the Districts at which trans-frontier trade is registered. At five registration stations along the frontier in 1882-83 imports were registered of the value of £219,571; and exports of the value of £417,911. The chief of these is the Kháibar route, which is the great highway of the trade with Kábul and Central Asia. In 1882-83, the imports *viâ* the Kháibar amounted to £185,127, and the exports to £367,403.

Roads and Means of Communication.—By the completion of the Punjab Northern State Railway, Pesháwar has been brought within the range of the whole Indian railway system. The Punjab Northern State Railway enters the District from the south, crossing the Indus at Attock by a magnificent railway bridge with a sub-way for ordinary foot and carriage traffic, and running westwards through the District for 47 miles, with stations at Khairábád, Akora, Naushahra, Naushahra *tahsíl*, Pabbi, Pesháwar city, and Pesháwar cantonment. The Grand Trunk road, entering Pesháwar from Lahore District opposite Attock, has a total length of 55 miles, bridged and metalled throughout. The bridge of boats formerly maintained across the Indus at Attock was abolished on the opening of the railway bridge. The other roads of importance are—(1) Pesháwar to Háshtnagar, 25 miles; (2) Pesháwar to Doába Dáúdzai, 18 miles; (3) Pesháwar to Kohát, *viâ* Fort Mackeson and the Kohát pass, 37½ miles; (4) Pesháwar to Kohát, *viâ* Bala and the Jawáki pass, 66 miles; (5) Pesháwar to Cherát, *viâ* Jaluzai and Sháhkot, 30 miles; (6) Pesháwar to Mardán, *viâ* Abbarpur and Nisatta, 32½ miles; (7) Pesháwar to Abazai Fort, *viâ* Prang and the east bank of the Swát, 32½ miles; (8) Pesháwar to Shabkadr, 18 miles; (9) Pesháwar to Michní, 14½ miles; (10) Pesháwar to Kábul, *viâ* Jamrud and the Kháibar pass, 190 miles; (11) Pesháwar to Bára Fort, 8 miles; (12) Naushahra to Mardán, 15 miles; (13) Naushahra to Mír Kalán, 16 miles; (14) Mardán to Abbottábád, *viâ* Tarbela on the Indus, 82 miles; (15) Jaluzai to Mír Kalán pass in the Khattak hills; (16) Jaluzai to Kánakhel pass in the Khattak hills; and (17) Jaluzai to Kákakhel Ziárat, 13 miles. These roads are all unmetalled and unbridged, and are often mere tracks. The Indus, Swát, and Kábul rivers are navigable throughout the valley at all seasons; but within the hills, except at certain points where there are ferries, the current is too strong for the use of boats. Total length of navigable water communication, 67 miles. A line of telegraph runs along the length of the railway, with an office at each station. There is also an imperial telegraph office at Pesháwar cantonment, with branches to Jamrud, Mardán, and Cherát.

Administration.—The ordinary civil staff of Pesháwar comprises a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant Commissioner, 2 Assistant

Commissioners, a Cantonment Magistrate, a Judge of the Small Cause Court, and 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual minor officials, with a bench of honorary magistrates. In 1883-84 the District contained 19 civil and fiscal and 25 criminal courts. In 1851-52 the total imperial revenue amounted to £83,891; by 1871-72 it had decreased to £78,412. At the latter date, the sum contributed by the land-tax was £62,327, or rather more than three-fourths of the whole. In 1883-84 the total revenue of the District was returned at £90,995, of which £63,029, or upwards of two-thirds, was made up by the fixed land-tax. The other principal items of revenue are stamps, assessed taxes, and excise. For police purposes, Peshâwar is divided into 19 circles (*thánás*), besides frontier and outpost stations. The imperial police numbered 664 men of all ranks in 1883; and this force was supplemented by a municipal constabulary of 265 men, besides a special cantonment police of 177 constables, and a punitive police of 29 men. There was also a rural body of 999 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2134 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 277 of the population and to every 1·2 square mile of the area. The criminal statistics show a total of 5358 persons convicted of some offence, great or small, during the year 1883, being at the rate of 1 offender to every 110 inhabitants. The more heinous crimes, such as murder, robbery, and housebreaking, are still common, and the wild habits of the Pathán tribes have not yet been brought into harmony with our industrial *régime*. Cattle-poisoning and rick-burning are also common, being the usual means of gratifying private malice. There is one jail in Pesháwar, the total number of prisoners in which amounted to 1033 in 1883. The daily average was 512.

Education.—In 1872-73, the total number of children under instruction was returned at 1858; while the sum expended upon education from public funds amounted to £1047. In 1883-84, Pesháwar District contained 40 schools, with 2197 pupils either supported or assisted by Government, and under the Education Department. There are also a number of indigenous uninspected village schools, where the pupils are taught the Kurán and other religious works by the *mullás*. In some villages, girls are taught at home privately by women who have learnt the Kurán. The Census of 1881 returned 8183 males and 321 females as under instruction, besides 18,065 males and 649 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal educational institution of the District is the Edwardes Collegiate Aided School of the Church Missionary Society, established in 1855. The pupils, of which there are about 500, many of them the sons of the neighbouring gentry, receive instruction in English, Persian, and Hindustání, up to the matriculation standard of the Calcutta and Lahore

Universities. The Church of England *Zanána* Mission supports two vernacular girls' schools, one for Muhammadans, and one for Hindus, in Pesháwar city; and another school with about 50 pupils at Utmanzai, in the Háshtnagar Sub-division.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Pesháwar valley naturally varies much with the elevation and other physical peculiarities. In the high and open uplands of Yusafzai, the air is fresh and buoyant; but in the low-lying central hollow, the land is saturated with the overflow of the Swát and the Kábul, so that the atmosphere becomes heavy and damp, chilling in winter, and laden with warm moisture in the hot season. In the greater part of the valley, shut in by high walls of rock, the air is singularly stagnant and motionless. The city itself has a bad reputation for fever and cholera. The chief endemic disease is fever, which is very prevalent in the Pesháwar cantonments. Besides the city hospital at Pesháwar, there are 4 Government charitable dispensaries, two at Pesháwar, and one each at Mardán and Shab-kadar; patients in 1883, 55,930, of whom 3105 were in-door patients.

Climate.—The average annual and monthly mean temperature at Pesháwar city is returned by the Meteorological Department as follows:—January, 49·8° F.; February, 52·8°; March, 62·8°; April, 71°; May, 80·8°; June, 88·5°; July, 89·2°; August, 86·7°; September, 81·1°; October, 71°; November, 58·2°; and December, 50·6°: yearly average, 70·2° F. The temperature in May 1883 varied from a minimum of 62·8° F. to a maximum of 110°, with a mean of 85·5°: July, minimum, 70·2° F.; maximum, 111·5°; mean, 90°: December, minimum, 32·2° F.; maximum, 71·7°; mean, 51·9°. The average annual and monthly rainfall is thus returned—January, 1·53 inch; February, 1·48 inch; March, 1·52 inch; April, 2·02 inches; May, 0·70 inch; June, 0·34 inch; July, 1·69 inch; August, 2·47 inches; September, 0·69 inch; October, 0·28 inch; November, 0·91 inch; December, 0·72 inch: total annual average, 14·35 inches. In 1883, only 9·8 inches of rain fell in Pesháwar, namely, 3·8 inches from January to May; 4·3 inches from June to September; and 1·7 inch from October to December. Snow seldom falls in the valley, and only remains unmelted for a very short time. In the hills surrounding the valley, reaching to upwards of 3000 feet, there are generally repeated falls of snow each winter; while in the loftier ranges behind snow lies sometimes for weeks at a time from the middle of November till the middle of May. Slight shocks of earthquake are frequently experienced, usually in the spring.

Pesháwar (*Peshawur*).—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab; extending from Pesháwar city to the Kháibar Hills, together with the Mohmand country in the south-eastern corner of the District. Area, 374 square miles, with 139 towns and villages, 24,849 houses, and 38,330 families. Population (1881) 172,031, namely, males 99,581,

and females 72,450; average density of population, 460 persons per square mile, or excluding Pesháwar city, 246 per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 147,232; Hindus, 20,025; Sikhs, 1739; Christians, 2991; Pársís, 39; Jains, 3, and 'others,' 2. Of the 139 towns and villages, 79 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 30 from five hundred to a thousand, 29 from one to five thousand; and only 1 (Pesháwar city) has upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Principal crops—Indian corn, wheat, barley, with a little rice, cotton, vegetables, sugar-cane, and inferior food-grains. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £19,272. The administrative staff, including the Divisional and District head-quarters officers, comprises the Commissioner and Judicial Commissioner of the Division, the Deputy Commissioner and Judicial Assistant Commissioner of the District, Cantonment Magistrate, and Small Cause Court Judge, 5 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates; besides a staff of subordinate village officials. These officers preside over 12 civil and 13 criminal courts. Number of police stations, 6, namely, at Pesháwar city and cantonments, Badhber, Mattani, Burj Hari Singh, and Mathra; strength of regular police, 321 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 197.

Pesháwar.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Pesháwar Division and District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 34° 1′ 45″ N., and long. 71° 36′ 40″ E., in a small plain near the left bank of the Bára stream, 13½ miles south-east of the junction of the Swát and Kábul rivers, and 10½ miles from Jamrud fort near the entrance of the Kháibar (Khyber) Pass. Distant from Lahore 276 miles, from Kábul 190 miles. Ancient capital of Gandhára Province, and historically important at all later periods (*see* PESHAWAR DISTRICT). Buddhist remains still mark its early greatness. The modern city has but slight architectural pretensions, the houses being chiefly built of small bricks or mud, held together by a wooden framework. It is surrounded by a mud wall, built in Sikh times by General Avitabile. The city is entered by 16 gates, which are closed every night at gunfire. The main street, entered from the Kábul gate (recently re-erected as a memorial to Sir Herbert Edwardes), is a broad roadway 50 feet in width, consisting of a double row of shops, the upper rooms of which are generally let out as lodgings; the street is well paved, and at busy times presents a very picturesque sight. The remainder of the city proper consists of octagons, squares, markets, with narrow and irregular streets and lanes. A masonry canal runs through the centre of the city, which supplies ample water for washing and watering the streets. Drinking water is procured from wells which are numerous in all quarters of the city. The sanitary and conservancy arrangements are described as very good, and all the drains are paved. There are now very few old houses

of architectural importance, most of them having been destroyed at the time of the capture of the city by the Sikhs from the Duránís. Several handsome mosques ornament the city; and a large building known as the Ghor Khattri, once a Buddhist monastery, and then rebuilt into a Hindu temple, is now used as a *sarái*, and contains the *tahsíli* courts and offices. Just without the wall, on the north-western side, a quadrilateral fort, the Bála Hissár, crowns a small eminence, completely dominating the city. Its walls of sun-dried brick rise to a height of 92 feet above the ground, with a *fausse-braye* of 30 feet; bastions stand at each corner and on three of the faces, while an armament of guns and mortars is mounted above.

South-west of the city, stretching from just outside the walls, are the suburbs of Bhána Mári and Bághban, where there are gardens noted for their fruit, producing quinces, pomegranates, plums, limes, peaches, and apples in abundance. These gardens form a favourite pleasure-ground of the people; north of the city is another public pleasure-ground, the Bágh Sháhi, or old royal gardens. Two miles west of the city lie the cantonments, where most of the civil offices are also situated.

Population.—Pesháwar city and suburbs, comprising the municipality, has a total population (1881) of 59,292, namely, males 33,089, and females 26,203. The cantonments contain a population (1881) of 20,690, namely, males 17,233, and females 3457. Including the city proper, suburbs, and cantonments, Pesháwar contains a total population of 79,982, namely, males 50,322, and females 29,660. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 57,378; Hindus, 18,105; Sikhs, 1465; Christians, 3028; Jains, 3; and 'others,' 3. The municipal income (chiefly derived from octroi duties) amounted in 1883–84 to £18,616, or an average of 6s. 3¼d. per head (59,292) of municipal population.

Trade and Manufactures.—The larger commercial transactions are in the hands of Hindu Khattri and Arora merchants, although there are also many Muhammadan merchants of position and importance. The mass of the town population is sub-divided into petty trade guilds, recruited from miscellaneous tribes of every race to be found in Northern India or in Afghánistán and the neighbouring countries to the south and west. Pesháwar forms the great commercial market for Central Asia, for Afghánistán, and for the neighbouring independent States and tribes adjoining the British frontier, collecting wheat and salt from Kohát, rice and *ghí* from Swát, oil-seeds from Yusafzai, and sugar and oil from the Punjab and North-Western Provinces. These articles find their market principally in Bokhára, Kábul, and Bajaur; in return for which are imported from Bokhára gold coin and bullion, gold and silver thread and lace, and prepared skins; and from Kábul horses,

mules and donkeys, fruits, sheepskin coats (*poshtins*), woollen embroidered coats (*chogas*), etc. Indian tea and English piece-goods are also exported in considerable quantities to Kábul.

Institutions, etc. — The Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner's courts, and the District offices generally, are situated in the cantonments. Within the city are the Sub-divisional offices and courts in the Ghor Khatri, the large *sarái*. The Edwardes gate, a newly constructed entrance to the city in place of the old Kábul gate, leads to the main business street; a clock tower stands in front of the city police station. The principal local institutions are the Church Mission Collegiate School, the Egerton Hospital, and the Martin Lecture Hall and Institute, with its reading room and library, also maintained by the Pesháwar Mission.

Pesháwar. — Large military cantonment in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated 2 miles west of Pesháwar city (*vide supra*), from whence it is separated by a slight depression occupied by the civil *bázár*; lat. 34° 0′ 15″ N., long. 71° 34′ 45″ E. The cantonments were occupied by British troops soon after the annexation of the Punjab in 1848–49. There are no old buildings of note, except the Residency. This was formerly the garden retreat of Ali Mardán Khán, one of the Duráni chiefs, and is now used as the record-room and the treasury of the District. Among the modern buildings are St. John's Church, double-storied barracks, etc. The site of the cantonment, a curved elevation looking towards the Kháibar hills, is one of the best and highest points in the valley, the only objection to it being its proximity to the city. To the south-east are barren and stony plains intercepted by occasional watercourses; to the north lies a marshy tract extending in the direction of the Kábul river.

The cantonments contained in 1881 a total population of 20,690, namely, males 17,223, and females 3457. The fighting strength consisted in 1885 of a battery of Royal artillery, 2 regiments of European infantry, a regiment of Bengal cavalry, and three regiments of Native infantry. The cantonments of Naushahra, Jamrúd, and Cherát are subordinate to Pesháwar, which also supplies garrisons to the frontier forts and military stations.

The cantonment buildings are arranged in three main blocks—right, centre, and left, forming together an irregular oblong 8 miles and 540 yards in circuit, 3 miles and 925 yards in length from north-west to south-west, and 1 mile 1650 yards in breadth at its widest point. The right (or eastern) block contains the artillery lines, and barracks for two regiments of Native infantry, the commissariat stores, the District court-house and treasury, the jail and police lines, and other public buildings. The centre block contains lines for a regiment of Native infantry. It contains also the church, Roman Catholic chapel, post-

office, staging bungalow, and the cantonment magistrate's office. The left (or western) block contains lines for a regiment of British infantry, two companies of sappers, a regiment of Native infantry, and one of Native cavalry. In front of this block are the race-course, grand parade, and burial-ground. In the rear are a large cricket-ground and public garden. The appearance of the place during the cold and rainy seasons is pleasing and picturesque. The gardens attached to the officers' bungalows, which line the main roads, are well planted with trees, and in most cases are well kept. Much public energy and good taste also have been displayed in certain improvements recently carried out. Add to this description the fact of a considerable society brought together by the presence of so large a force, and it will be seen that the place combines the principal qualifications for a pleasurable station. The whole, however, is marred by the excessive unhealthiness for which the cantonment is proverbial throughout Northern India, fever of a very bad type being prevalent at all seasons of the year. Much has recently been done to remove the causes of this unhealthiness; a large marsh near the fort has been drained, and a belt of trees planted between it and the cantonments; a pure supply of filtered water through iron pipes from the Bára river has been introduced; and lastly, the sanitation of Pesháwar city has been vastly improved. Moreover, a large proportion of sickly men are now annually withdrawn from the valley during the hot months to the comparatively healthy site of Cherát. The result of these measures is said to have been a very marked decrease in the former insalubrity of the station.

Pet Budhwárá.—Village in Kátol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2361, namely, Hindus, 1893; Muhammadans, 378; Jains, 34; non-Hindu aborigines, 56.

Peth.—Head-quarters of Wálwa Sub-division, Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 3′ N., long. 74° 17′ E. Population (1881) 5672. Hindus number 5367; Muhammadans, 239; and Jains, 66. Situated 45 miles south-east of Sátára town, Peth is one of the local trade centres; the chief articles of trade being grain and cattle. A yearly fair, attended by about 5000 people, is held in the village in February. Post-office, and school with 111 pupils in 1883–84.

Pethápur.—Native State within the Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 7081. Agricultural products—millet, pulse, and wheat. Cotton cloth is imported and dyed, for exportation to Siam. The chief is descended from a branch of the Hindu dynasty of Anhilwára Pátan, whose power was destroyed by Alá-ud-dín in 1298. Siramshi or Sarangdeo, one of the two sons of the last king of Pátan, was granted the town of Kálol and surrounding villages. Descended from him in the tenth generation was Herutájí,

who in 1445 slew his maternal uncle, Pitájí, of the Gohel tribe, and took possession of the State called after him, Pethápur. The chief has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Mahi Kántha. The present (1885) chief, Thákur Gambhír Singh, a Hindu of the Wághela clan of Rájputs, succeeded his father, Himat Singh, in December 1878, and being a minor, the State is now under Government management. Revenue (1882), £1725. An annual tribute of £863 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The family do not hold a title authorizing adoption, and they follow primogeniture in matters of succession. Transit dues are levied in the State. One school, with 205 pupils in 1882–83.

Pethápur.—Principal town in Pethápur State, Mahi Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency, and the residence of the chief; situated in lat. 23° 13′ 10″ N., and long. 72° 33′ 30″ E., on the west bank of the Sábarmatí. Noted for the brilliancy of its dyes. Considerable quantities of cloth are brought into the town to be coloured, and are then exported to Siam. Population (1881) 7081.

Petlád.—Sub-division of Baroda State (Gaekwar's territory). Area, 280 square miles, of which 88,087 acres are under cultivation. Population (1881) 138,292. Number of holdings, 16,159; average size of holding, 6 acres. Gross revenue, £87,814, of which £77,666 is derived from land. Ninety-three per cent. of the people are supported by agriculture. The region is famous for its tobacco cultivation.

Petlád. — Town in Baroda State, head-quarters of Petlád Sub-division. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 72° 50′ E. Population (1881) 14,418, namely, 7226 males and 7192 females. Thriving trade in tobacco, and considerable weaving manufacture, in which hand-looms are employed. Post and police offices, jail, dispensary, customs house, and schools. Twenty-one *saráis* for travellers.

Pettai.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PATTAPATTU.

Phaeton.—Small shoal off the mouth of the Bassein river, Lower Burma; on which H.M.S. *Phaeton* struck on the 16th of February 1810, and was obliged to put into Calcutta for repairs. It bears south-west by south from Diamond Island (distant 4 miles), and north by east (distant 3½ miles) from the Alguada Reef, having 9 fathoms of water close to, and 2 fathoms upon it.

Phágu. — Halting-place, with good Government rest-house of several rooms, in Keunthal State, Punjab, 12 miles east of Simla on the pony route to Kotgarh. Lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. Romantically situated between 8000 and 9000 feet above sea-level, and frequently resorted to by Simla residents as well as travellers. The noble forests which clothed the mountain slopes have been in great part burned down, and have given place to potato cultivation. Formerly

a chief source of charcoal fuel for Simla. Of late, game has become very scarce.

Phagwára.—Town in Kapúrthála State, Punjab. Population (1881) 10,627, namely, Hindus, 6889; Muhammadans, 3133; Sikhs, 496; and Jains, 109. Number of houses, 2065.

Phalalum (*Phalut*).—One of the loftiest peaks in Dárjíling District, Bengal, in the Singalilá spur of the Himálayas; 12,042 feet in height. Lat. 27° 12′ 30″ N., long. 88° 3′ E. The view of the great northern Snowy Mountains from this hill is said by the District officer to be one of 'indescribable grandeur. A jagged line of snow connecting the two highest mountains in the world, Everest and Kánchanjangá, dazzles the eye; and while the deep silence around impresses itself upon the spectator, the thick clumps of pine forest, with their wide-spreading arms, add a weird solemnity to the scene.' The range is crossed by the Nepál frontier road; and a staging bungalow has been recently erected on the Singalilá spur, which is available to travellers on application to the Deputy Commissioner of Dárjíling.

Phalauda.—Town in Muwána *tahsíl*, Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. The town is said to have been founded by Phalgu, a Rájput of the Tuár clan, whose descendants held possession of it till they were ousted by the Muhammadans. The place was abandoned for nearly two centuries, on account of a curse uttered by Kutab Sháh, a *fakír;* and no one would cultivate it at the settlement in 1836. Some Játs were afterwards induced to occupy the village at a progressive revenue commencing from £3. It is now again in a high state of cultivation, and at the last land revenue settlement was assessed at a revenue of £99. Population (1881) 5163, namely, Hindus, 3076; Muhammadans, 2050; and Jains, 37. Muhammadans still refuse to live in the town, as they say they are immediately seized with disease.

Phálgú.—River of Gayá District, Bengal; formed by the union, a few miles above Gayá town, of two hill torrents, the Lilájan and the Mohána, which both enter the District from the south. When the Phálgú reaches the high and rocky shores of Gayá, it is above 500 yards wide, and for the next half-mile is remarkable for its sanctity. During the hot weather it dries up, but water can always be obtained by digging a few feet below the surface. After leaving Gayá, the river runs in a north-easterly direction for about 17 miles. When opposite the Barábár Hill, it divides into two branches, which flow eventually into a branch of the Púnpún.

Phalián.—Western *tahsíl* of Gujrát District, Punjab; consisting of a plateau bordering on Sháhpur District; lying between 32° 10′ 30″ and 32° 44′ N. lat., and between 73° 20′ and 73° 55′ 30″ E. long. Area, 772 square miles, with 308 towns and villages, 20,665 houses, and

35,753 families. Population (1881) 174,704, namely, males 92,425, and females 82,279; average density of population, 226 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 150,946; Hindus, 21,898; Sikhs, 1858; and Christians, 2. Of the 308 towns and villages, 178 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 84 from five hundred to a thousand; and 46 from one thousand to five thousand, there being no place with upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Average area under cultivation for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82, 317 square miles, or 202,891 acres; the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 100,464 acres; *bájra*, 24,234 acres; barley, 14,686 acres; *moth*, 4642 acres; gram, 4318 acres; Indian corn, 2226 acres; rice, 1653 acres; cotton, 5750 acres; sugar-cane, 2887 acres; tobacco, 1247 acres; vegetables, 10,284 acres, etc. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £15,783. The local administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 51 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 204.

Pháljar.—Village in the Jaintia plains in the north of Sylhet District, Assam; containing a celebrated Hindu temple. A human sacrifice at this temple led to the British annexation of Jaintia in 1837.

Phaltán.—Native State under the Agency of Sátára, in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency, lying between 17° 56′ and 18° 6′ N. lat., and between 74° 16′ and 74° 44′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Poona (Púna) District, and on the east, west, and south by Sátára District. Area, 397 square miles. Population (1872) 59,124; (1881) 58,402, namely, 29,199 males and 29,203 females, occupying 7082 houses in 1 town and 71 villages. Hindus number 55,389; Muhammadans, 1670; and 'others,' 1343. Gross revenue, inclusive of import and export duties, £12,902. The country is chiefly flat; lines of stony hills divide it from Sátára District. The prevailing soil is black, and the rest is red. About 9000 acres of garden cultivation are irrigated, for the most part from wells. Extensive grazing lands. Indian millet, salt, gram, and timber are the chief products; and oil, weaving of cotton and silk goods, and carving of stone idols are the chief manufactures. The climate is hot, and the rainfall scanty. The State suffered severely during the famine of 1876-77; much land was abandoned, and has not yet been brought under cultivation. In 1882-83 the State had 3 civil courts, besides criminal and sessions courts. Regular police, 52 men; watchmen (*rakhváldárs*), 43. Schools, 16, with 719 pupils.

The Phaltán family is of Rájput origin. One Padakla Jagdeo entered the service of the Emperor of Delhi; and on his death in battle, in 1327, the Emperor gave the title of Náyak and a grant of lands to his son Nimbráji, who died in 1349. In 1825 the State was attached by the Rájá of Sátára. In 1827, Banáji Náyak was permitted to succeed on

payment of a relief of £3000. On his death in the following year, Phaltán was again attached by the Sátára Government till 1841, when the widow of the deceased chief was allowed to adopt a son—the present chief of Phaltán—on payment of a relief of £3000. The present (1882) ruler, who ranks as a 'First-Class Sardár' in the Deccan, is Mádhavji Ráo Náyak Nimbalkar, Desmukh Jagirdár. He is a Hindu of the Kshattriya caste, forty-four years of age, and administers his estate in person. He pays a tribute of £960, in lieu of a contingent of 75 horse. The family hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. In matters of succession they follow the custom of primogeniture.

Phaltán. — Chief town of Phaltán State, in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 59′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 28′ 20″ E., 37 miles north-east of Sátára. Population (1872) 9741; (1881) 10,842, namely, 5438 males and 5404 females. Hindus in 1881 numbered 8854; Muhammadans, 794; and Jains, 1194. The town was founded by Nimbráj in the 14th century. The streets are well kept and clean, and the road round the town well shaded by trees. Municipality established in 1868; income (1882), £580; incidence of taxation, 3d. per head.

Phalút.—Lofty peak in Darjíling District, Bengal.—*See* PHALALUM.

Pháphúnd. — Central eastern *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level upland plain, traversed by the East Indian Railway, and watered by the Etáwah branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 228 square miles, of which 124 are cultivated. Population (1872) 97,574; (1881) 111,585, namely, males 61,193, and females 50,392, showing an increase of population since 1872 of 14,011, or 12·5 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 105,142; Muhammadans, 6433; and 'others,' 10. Of the 240 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 187 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 38 from five hundred to a thousand; 14 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue assessment, £21,391, or including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £23,972; estimated rental paid by cultivators, £39,134. In 1883, Pháphúnd *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 magisterial court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 37 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 223.

Pháphúnd.—Town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Etáwah *tahsíl.* Situated in lat. 26° 35′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 30′ 25″ E., on an old mound, 36 miles east of Etáwah town. Population (1881) 7796, namely, Hindus, 5311; Muhammadans, 2480; and Christians, 5. Area of town site, 118 acres. For conservancy and police purposes, a house-tax is levied. Pháphúnd contains several good brick-built houses; wide, busy *bázár*; open modern quarter known as Hume-ganj; handsome *sarái*, with large enclosure shaded by trees.

Tahsíli, police station, Anglo-vernacular school. The Pháphúnd railway station is situated 6 miles north-east of the town, with telegraph office; post-office in the town. Ruins of great tanks and temples surround the site on every side. Two mosques, masonry well, 4 tanks. The town was twice plundered and burnt during the Mutiny of 1857. Annual fair, attended by 10,000 persons, at the tomb of Sháh Bukhári, a Musalmán ascetic.

Pharámgiri (or *Farámgiri*).—Village in the south-east of the Gáro Hills District, Assam; on the southern slope of the Mimanrám Mountain, 3952 feet above sea-level. The inhabitants of this village perpetrated the massacre of the survey coolies in 1871, which led to the Gáro expedition of the following year, and the British annexation of the District.

Pharha (*Pharhiya*).—Town in Mustáfábád *tahsíl*, Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Máinpuri town 39½ miles, and from Mustáfábád 8 miles. Population (1881) 4268, namely, Hindus, 3043; Muhammadans, 663; and 'others,' 562. The conservancy and police arrangements of the town are met out of the proceeds of a small house-tax. Trade in indigo, cotton, grain, and country produce, which has declined since the opening of the railway. Police station, post-office. Branch indigo factory of the Umargarh establishment.

Phení (*Fenny*).—Sub-division of Noákhálí District, Bengal. Area, 343 square miles; number of villages, 636; number of houses, 23,273. Population (1881), males 118,332, and females 123,643; total, 241,975. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 166,751; Hindus, 75,209; Christians, 3; and Buddhists, 12. Density of population, 705 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·85; persons per village, 380; houses per square mile, 71; persons per house, 10·4. The Sub-division comprises the two police circles (*thánás*) of Phení and Chhágalnaiya. In 1883 it contained 1 criminal court, namely, the Sub-divisional officers' court at Phení; and 2 civil *munsif's* courts, both at Diwánganj.

Phení.—River of Eastern Bengal. Rising in lat. 23° 20′ N., and long. 91° 49′ 30″ E., in Hill Tipperah, it flows south-west, marking the boundary between Hill Tipperah and the Chittagong Hill Tracts, which it leaves at Rámghar. Thence it flows west and south, dividing Chittagong from Noákhálí on the north, and ultimately falls into the Sandwíp Channel, an arm of the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 46′ N., and long. 91° 31′ E. During its course through the hills, it is of little use for navigation; its banks are abrupt, and covered with heavy grass and bamboo jungle. The Phení is of considerable depth during the rains, but is rendered dangerous by rapid currents, whirling eddies, and sharp turns; at every full and new moon, especially at the time of the equinox, there is a bore in the Sandwíp Channel, which is

highest at the mouth of the Phení river. It is navigable by large boats throughout the year for a distance of 30 miles.

Phillaur.—Central southern *tahsíl* of Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying between 30° 57′ 15″ and 31° 13′ N. lat., and between 75° 33′ and 76° E. long., along the bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Area, 294 square miles, with 220 towns and villages, 23,813 houses, and 38,058 families. Population (1881) 168,269, namely, males 92,871, and females 75,398; average density of population, 573 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 85,016; Muhammadans, 58,620; Sikhs, 24,532; Christians, 98; and Jains, 3. Of the 220 towns and villages, 127 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 57 from five hundred to a thousand; 31 from one to five thousand; and 5 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Average cultivated area for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82, 261 square miles, or 166,998 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 55,165 acres; gram, 16,638 acres; Indian corn, 18,193 acres; *joár*, 22,509 acres; *moth*, 4837 acres; barley, 2222 acres; rice, 1125 acres; sugar-cane, 10,488 acres; cotton, 5793 acres; tobacco, 76 acres, etc. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £30,017. The local administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 1 *munshí*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2, with head-quarters at Phillaur and Núrmahal; strength of regular police, 45 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 307.

Phillaur.—Town and municipality in Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Phillaur *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 31° 0′ 38″ N., and long. 75° 49′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 27 miles south-east of Jálandhar town. The modern town dates from the reign of Sháh Jahán, when its site, then covered with ruins, was selected for one of the *saráis* or resting-stages on the imperial route from Delhi to Lahore. It was seized on the rise of the Sikh power by one Sudh Singh, who made it the capital of a considerable estate; and fell into the hands of Ranjít Singh in 1807, who converted the *sarái* into a fort to command the passage of the Sutlej. After the British occupation, the fort was occupied as an important artillery arsenal and magazine; and a cantonment was formed in the neighbourhood, which continued to be occupied till the Mutiny of 1857, when the detachment in garrison rebelled. The cantonment was not reoccupied after the pacification. Phillaur owes its modern importance to the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, on which it forms one of the depôt stations. Large colony of railway employés. Population (1881) 7107, namely, Muhammadans, 4022; Hindus, 2749; Sikhs, 260; Christians, 75; and Jain, 1. Number of houses, 1137. Municipal income (1883–84), £517, or 1s. 5½d. per head of the population. *Tahsíli*, police station, branch dispensary, middle-class school, post-office. The town

is also the head-quarters of a forest division, and is a great wood mart, large quantities of timber being floated down the Sutlej and stored and sold here.

Phingeswar (*Fingeswar*).—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces, about 30 miles south of Ráipur town; containing 80 villages, and valuable forests. Area, 208 square miles, with 84 towns or villages, and 4834 houses. Population (1881) 16,325, namely, males 8118, and females 8207; average density of population, 78·5 persons per square mile. The chief claims to be a Ráj-Gond; and the chiefship is said to have been granted to his ancestor in 1579. Phingeswar village lies in lat. 20° 58′ N., and long. 82° 5′ E.

Phuláguri (*Fuláguri*).—Village in Nowgong (Naugáon) District, Assam. A fair, attended by about 5000 persons, is held here for one day in March, and is said to have been introduced in the reign of the Aham kings. Its primary object is the performance of religious plays in honour of certain deities.

Phuljhar.—*Zamíndárí* or chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, formerly one of the Hill States known as the *Athára Garhját*, or the Eighteen Forts. Area, 787 square miles, two-thirds of which are cultivated. The soil is light and sandy, except here and there in the valleys. In the west, some fine strips of *sál* jungle fringe the main road between Ráipur and Sambalpur, especially near the river Jonk; the tigers which infested them have been of late nearly exterminated. Wild buffaloes are found near the Jonk, and bears, leopards, etc., among the hills. Rice forms the staple crop, but pulses, cotton, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and gram are also grown. Excellent iron-ore has been found. Population (1881) 65,878, namely, males 33,395, and females 32,483, inhabiting 436 villages and 17,010 houses; average density of population, 83·7 persons per square mile. The school in Phuljhar, the chief town (lat. 21° 13′ N., long. 82° 53′ E.), has about 50 pupils. This chiefship is sub-divided into eight estates—Phuljhargarh, Kelindá, Boitarí, Basná, Baládá, Borsará, Singhorá, and Sánkrá. About 250 villages are held by the farmers direct from the chief, who is a Ráj-Gond. His annual income is estimated at £1362, and he pays an annual tribute of £100. The chiefship was granted to his ancestor 300 years ago by the Patná Rájás, for service in the field.

Phúlpur.—*Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the north bank of the river Ganges, and comprising the *parganás* of Sikandra and Jhusí. Area, 285 square miles, of which 161·3 are returned as under cultivation. Population (1872) 160,305; (1881) 173,001, namely, males 86,221, and females 86,780, showing an increase of 12,696, or 7·9 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 151,618; Muham-

madans, 21,378; and 'others,' 5. Of the 488 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 391 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 71 from five hundred to a thousand; 25 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue assessment, £30,069, or including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £34,580. In 1883, Phúlpur *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and revenue and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police force, 28 men; village police force (*chaukídárs*), 352.

Piálí.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. A cross stream from the BIDYADHARI to the MATLA; it branches off from the former river in lat. 22° 25′ N., and long. 88° 35′ E., near Bhágírathpur, and flows a southerly and south-westerly course till it falls into the Matlá about 15 miles below Port Canning. The river is bridged at the point where the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway crosses it. The Piálí is a deep stream, about 100 yards in breadth where it leaves the Bidyádharí, increasing to about 250 yards on its way.

Pigeon Island.—Island off the coast of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 33′ N., and long. 83° 14′ E., about 7 leagues eastward of Wattada. It lies low, and is not discernible from a distance.

Pigeon Island (also known as *Netráni* or *Nitrán*).—Island ten miles off the coast of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 1′ N., and long. 74° 19′ E., about 15 miles north-west of Bhatkal. The island is about 300 feet high and half a mile broad. It is well wooded, and has good landing on the west side. In clear weather it is visible 25 miles off. Its shores abound in white coral and quicklime, which are taken by boats to the mainland. The numbers of pigeons that haunt its caves have given the island its name. Besides pigeons, the island is frequented by the swiftlet, Collocalia unicolor, whose nests the Chinese esteem a delicacy. It also contains one of the largest known colonies of the white-bellied sea eagle.

Piháni.—*Parganá* in Sháhábád *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east by Kheri and Sítápur Districts, on the south by Gopámau and Mansúrnagar *parganás*, and on the west by Mansúrnagar and Alamnagar. Area, 80 square miles, of which 43 are cultivated. Population (1881) 37,463, namely, 30,283 Hindus and 4180 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £4028. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 81. The proprietary class consists of Bráhmans, Rájputs, Káyasths, and Musalmáns.

Piháni.—Town and municipality in Sháhábád *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Piháni *parganá*; situated in lat.

27° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 80° 14′ 25″ E., on the road between Sítápur and Sháhjahánpur. Population (1881) 7540, namely, 4458 Hindus and 3082 Muhammadans, residing in 327 brick and 1493 mud houses. Municipal income (1883–84), £215, of which £103 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 4½d. per head. A place of considerable importance during native administration, but now in a state of decay. A handsome mosque and tomb marks the resting-place of Akbar's celebrated chancellor, Sadr Jahán. Piháni was formerly noted for its manufacture of sword-blades of the finest temper, and of woven turbans (*dastár*). Both these industries have now died out. Police station; Government school.

Pihej.—Town in Baroda Division, Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory). Population (1881) 6294.

Pihewa.—Town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab.—*See* PEHOA.

Pilibhít.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 8′ and 28° 53′ 30″ N. lat., and between 79° 41′ and 80° 3′ E. long. Area, 1371·6 square miles. Population (1881) 451,601. Pilibhít is a District of the Rohilkhand Division; bounded on the north by the Tarái District; on the east by the independent territory of Nepál, and by Sháhjahánpur District; on the south by Sháhjahánpur; and on the west by Bareilly (Bareli) District. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of PILIBHIT.

Physical Aspects.—Pilibhít District, though only separated by the narrow belt of the Tarái from the lower spurs of the Himálayas, consists chiefly of a level plain, modified by gentle undulations and intersected by several streams. In the south, the country is well wooded, nearly every village possessing groves of mango and other fruit trees. The total area under fruit groves is returned at 15,612 acres. In the north and east, a large area of forest land fringes Pilibhít and Puranpur *parganás*, a small portion of which is the private property of *zamíndárs*, while the remainder is Government property, and is conserved and managed by forest officers. In Puranpur *parganá*, the cultivators are allowed to cut wood for their domestic consumption free of duty, but in the Pilibhít forest tract, their privileges in this respect are much restricted.

The Sárda and the Deoha, with their affluents, are the principal rivers of the District. The former river, after a course of some 150 miles within the Kumáun hills, debouches upon the plains at Barmdeo, and marks the boundary between Nepálese and British territory. For about nine or ten miles, as far as the old fort of Banbasa in the Tarái District, it flows in a southerly and south-easterly direction, generally in one bed, between tolerably high and picturesquely wooded banks. On nearing the plains, the river soon changes its character; every mile

rapids become rarer, the bed less strewn with boulders, and sandbanks appear. Near Banbasa, the river separates into two main streams, which reunite about 14 miles lower down, enclosing the island known as Chandni Chauk. Within living memory, the western channel carried the main stream of the Sárda. But of late years the current has been steadily tending towards the eastern channel, and the western now carries little more than a few inches of water during the summer months. The western channel marks, however, the Nepálese boundary. About a mile below the reunion of the two branches is Mandiyághát, an important station on the main road between Bareilly, Pilibhit, and Nepál. From Mandiyághát, the Sárda flows south-eastwards through Pilibhít District, marking at parts the boundary between British and Nepálese territory, but with many bifurcations and interlacing channels, till it passes into Kheri District, where it receives the Kauriála; and the united river is thence known as the Sarju or Gogra, the great river of Oudh, down to its confluence with the Ganges at Chaprá in the Bengal District of Sáran, in lat. 25° 43′ N., long. 84° 43′ 30″ E. Ferries are maintained across the Sárda at Sherpur and Jatpura. The principal affluent of the Sárda is the Chauká, a considerable stream, which, after a long course through the Tarái District and the Puranpur *parganá* of Pilibhít, almost parallel with the Sárda, falls into that river on its right bank near Dhanauraghát.

The Deoha, known to the neighbouring mountaineers as the Nandá, rises in the Bhábar tract of Kumáun. Here its waters, like that of other streams to the eastward, contains large quantities of lime in solution, and blanch after rain to a milky whiteness. The springs from the hills, below which the river debouches on to the plains, are similarly impregnated, and deposit their lime either pure or in stalactites. Such lime is exported to Bareilly, Pilibhít, and Sháhjahánpur, where its excellent quality commands a ready sale. The Deoha enters Pilibhít from the north in the centre of the District, and flowing a tortuous southerly course, marks the boundary between Jahanábád and Pilibhít *parganás*, till it passes into Bareilly, and ultimately into Sháhjahánpur and Hardoi Districts, in the latter of which it joins the Rámgangá under the name of the Garra. Swollen by violent floods from the mountains, the river is at times very broad and deep, with a maximum flood discharge of 26,000 cubic feet per second; its hot-weather discharge does not exceed 200 feet per second. Pilibhít town is situated on the left bank of the Deoha, and below this point the river is navigable during the rains by boats of four tons burthen, while logs may be floated down it for most of the year. The affluents of the Deoha in Pilibhít District are the Kailás, Absara, Lohiya, and Khakra. A good deal of water for irrigation is supplied from these streams; but

the Deoha itself having a wide bed much below the level of the surrounding country, cannot prove similarly useful. The Gúmtí river takes its rise near Mainákot in the Puranpur forest tract. Its course in Pilibhít District before entering Sháhjahánpur consists of a series of swamps, all bearing a bad reputation for malaria. A similar line of swamps, forming the upper part of the Málá, is of a particularly malarious character, and renders the country-side uninhabitable for miles around.

Generally speaking, it may be said that on the western and southern portions the District is populous, well cultivated, and undistinguishable in general character from the adjacent fertile Districts of Bareilly and Sháhjahánpur; while to the north and east in Puranpur *parganá* it lapses more or less abruptly into a tract of malarious swamp, forest, and grassy waste, interspersed with clumps of miserable huts and patches of poor cultivation. It would be hard to find a stronger dissimilarity than exists between Puranpur and its neighbouring *parganás* of Pilibhít and Jahanábád, either in soil, produce, water-supply, or even climate.

In the wilder parts of Puranpur, especially along the line of the Málá swamp, tigers and leopards are numerous, but elsewhere scarce. The damage done by them in the open country is small, and their raids on cattle are forgiven in consideration of their services against the husbandman's more serious enemies—the wild hog and the deer, who commit serious depredations among the crops. Of wild beasts that are not game, the jackal and the wolf are the most conspicuous. Both are respected as pet dogs of the goddess Kálí, and as such are rarely molested. The superstition is strongest in the case of the wolf, whom, in spite of the rewards set on his head, it is considered extremely unlucky to kill. The principal game birds consist of the black and grey partridge, quail, sand-grouse, jungle-fowl, pea-fowl, geese, ducks, teal, snipe, and floriken.

History.—Authentic history of Pilibhít District may be said practically to commence with the ascendency of the Rohillá Patháns. Previous to their time, and from a very early date, the country was occupied by tribes of Ahírs, Banjáras, and Rájputs of the Báchhal and Katheriya clans, who predominated in turn, and have left behind them as sole relics of their occupation, ruins of mud forts, irrigation tanks, and in one instance a canal, with a stone inscription 900 years old commemorating its construction. These tribes were afterwards ousted by successive irruptions of Muhammadans, who gradually possessed themselves of the whole country. Local history, however, does not commence before the 18th century, when Pilibhít fell into the hands of a Rohillá chief, Háfiz Rahmat Khán, who has left his mark on the history of all Rohilkhand, and to whom Pilibhít,

which he selected for a time as his residence, is indebted for its public buildings, markets, and all that distinguished it before the advent of British rule.

On the permanent establishment of Rahmat Khán's supremacy in 1754, Pilibhít became the recognised capital of Rohilkhand. Háfiz Rahmat Khán surrounded the city first with a mud, and afterwards with a brick wall. The latter was demolished after his death, but traces of the long lines of curtains and bastions still mark the city boundaries on the northern and eastern sides. The Jamá Masjid or cathedral mosque which he built in imitation of the great Jamá Masjid at Delhi, is the chief architectural ornament of the city; and the *hammám* or public bath which he established, is still maintained and resorted to by the people.

Háfiz Rahmat Khán was killed in the battle of Miranka Katra in 1774, fought between the Rohillás and the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, who was aided by a European force lent by Warren Hastings. Pilibhít was occupied without resistance, and became a part of the new dominions added to the territories of the Nawáb Wazír. In 1801, with the rest of Rohilkhand, it passed to the British, being ceded in lieu of the payment of tribute. Pilibhít was made the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* till 1833, when it became the capital of a separate District known as the Northern Division of Bareilly. In 1842, Pilibhít again became a Sub-division of Bareilly District.

At the time of the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, Pilibhít Sub-division was under the charge of Mr. C. P. Carmichael, Joint Magistrate. Tidings of the rising of the troops at Bareilly reached Pilibhít on the 1st June, and tumults at once broke out among the population. Throngs of excited and fanatical Muhammadans, low castes, and bad characters, besieged the *tahsílí* for the purpose of plunder. The leading citizens, who had been charged by the Joint Magistrate with the duty of dividing and removing the treasure to a place of safety, fell out among themselves, and the whole city became a scene of uproar and bloodshed. Mr. Carmichael, finding it impossible to allay the tumult, and that his continued presence could serve no useful purpose, was forced to retire to Naini Tal, whither he had previously despatched his family for safety. Until the restoration of British authority in 1858, the villages of the Pilibhít Sub-division remained a prey to the rapacity and extortions of rival *zamíndárs*, while the city nominally submitted to the authority of Khán Bahádur Khán, the rebel Nawáb of Bareilly, grandson of Háfiz Rahmat Khán. Since the restoration of British authority, the only occasion on which order has been disturbed was in 1871, when a riot, which was not suppressed without bloodshed, occurred between the Muhammadan and Hindu factions on the occasion of a Hindu festival.

Pilibhít continued to remain a Sub-division of Bareilly until 1879, when the three *tahsíls* of Pilibhít, Puranpur, and Baheri were separated from Bareilly, and erected into the separate District of Pilibhít. In the following year (1880), Baheri *tahsíl* was restored to Bareilly, and Bisalpur *tahsíl* added to Pilibhít, thus constituting the District as it at present stands.

Population.—The population of Pilibhít District, as now constituted, was returned in 1872 at 492,098. The last Census in 1881 disclosed a total population of 451,601, showing a decrease of 40,497, or 8·2 per cent., in nine years. The decrease is ascribed to the severe scarcity of 1878–79, and the consequent heavy mortality. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the District, 1371·6 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1053; number of occupied houses, 64,625. Total population, 451,601, namely, males 239,787, and females 211,814; proportion of males in total population, 53·1 per cent. Average density of population, 329 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·76; persons per town or village, 429; houses per square mile, 47·1; persons per occupied house, 6·9. Classified according to sex and age, there are —under 15 years of age, boys 94,806, and girls 79,805; total children, 174,611, or 38·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 144,981, and females 132,009; total adults, 276,990, or 61·3 per cent.

Religion.—Hindus number 377,003, or 83·5 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 74,580, or 16·5 per cent. The remainder consists of 18 Christians, of whom 12 are Europeans, 2 Eurasians, and 4 natives. Among the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 25,028; Rájputs, 9756; Baniyás, 7356; and Káyasths, 5148. The lower castes include the following—Kúrmí, the principal agricultural class, and most numerous caste in the District, 98,427; Lodhí, 33,953; Chamár, 30,025; Kachhí, 24,063; Káhár, 13,689; Ahír, 13,250; Pásí, 10,712; Barhai, 10,524; Telí, 10,101; Dhobí, 8774; Lohár, 7372; Kori, 7080; Nái, 7014; and Gadáriá, 6445. The Muhammadans, who are almost without exception Sunnís by sect, include 1642 descendants of Hindu Mewatís.

Town and Rural Population.—Pilibhít District contains only two towns with a population exceeding five thousand, namely, PILIBHIT, 29,721, and BISALPUR, 8903; total, 38,624, or 8·5 per cent. of the District population. These are also the only municipalities; total municipal income (1883–84), £3893, of which £3069 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7d. per head of town population. Of the 1053 towns and villages, 353 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 441 from two hundred to five hundred; 198 from five hundred to a thousand; 42 from one to two thousand; 14 from

two to three thousand; 3 from three to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the male population is divided into the following six main classes—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 2527; (2) domestic class, 602; (3) commercial class, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 5316; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 116,964; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 23,500; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 90,878.

Agriculture.—In 1883-84, out of a total area assessed for Government revenue amounting to 1220½ square miles, or 781,109 acres, 419,164 acres were returned as under cultivation, 287,792 acres as cultivable waste, and 74,153 acres as uncultivable. The three *tahsíls* of which the District is composed differ widely in soil, products, and climate. In the northern *tahsíl* of Pilibhít, with its clayey soil and heavy rainfall, rice forms the predominant crop; but owing to the canals which have been constructed west of the Deoha, and to a more laborious system of cultivation now generally observable, a considerable area has of late years been devoted to wheat and barley; and the cultivation of the sugar-cane is rapidly extending. The cultivated portion of the eastern *tahsíl* of Puranpur consists mainly of a level plateau of light sandy loam, producing chiefly *urd* and *bájra* for the autumn, and wheat and barley for the spring harvests. The large uncultivated area in Puranpur *tahsíl* is mostly utilized as pasture land; and the cattle bred here, although of small size, are noted for their hardiness and endurance. In the southern *tahsíl* of Bisalpur, where irrigation from wells is the rule, as elsewhere it is the exception, every variety of crop common to Rohilkhand is grown with success. The style of cultivation varies as much as the produce. In the south and west, it will bear comparison with the best of the Rohilkhand Districts; but in the north-east and east, where the energies of the cultivator are devoted to protecting his crops from the depredations of wild beasts, cultivation is slovenly and irrigation rare. The total area irrigated in Pilibhít District in 1883-84 was 81,417 acres, of which 11,161 acres were irrigated from Government works, and 70,256 acres by private individuals.

Rents are paid in every possible way, and at widely differing rates. For rice cultivation, the system of *batái* or division of the crop prevails; while in Puranpur *tahsíl* a peculiar system of crop rates is universally found, by which rents are paid in cash, at rates regulated according to the nature of the crop grown, and without any reference to the quality of the soil or its situation. The total male adult agricultural population of Pilibhít District, as returned by the Census of 1881, is 116,303, with an average of 3·41 cultivated acres for each. Includ-

ing males and females, the adult agriculturists number 144,433, of whom 1859 are landed proprietors, 3507 are engaged in estate service, 131,903 are cultivators, and 7164 are agricultural labourers. Including children, the total agricultural population dependent on the soil numbers 326,574, or 72·31 per cent. of the District population. Total Government assessment in 1881, including rates and cesses levied on the land, £83,811, or at the rate of 4s. 3½d. per cultivated acre; estimated rental paid by cultivators, £138,334, or at the rate of 6s. 11¾d. per cultivated acre. The cultivators are mostly poor, but independent, with strong migratory instincts, which are markedly developed in the sparsely populated tracts along the forest borders. The general absence of irrigation in these tracts, coupled with the roving character of the population, render cultivation so uncertain, that it has been found necessary to introduce in many villages a system of annual assessment by which the revenue varies according to the area of land under cultivation.

Natural Calamities. — Pilibhít District has never suffered very severely from famine caused by floods or droughts, and the diseases consequent thereon. The Sárda and the Deoha occasionally rise suddenly and inundate their banks owing to heavy rainfall in the hills; but the Sárda flows through sandy wastes and jungles, and cultivation is scanty along the Deoha. The loss arising from floods is seldom more serious than the drowning of a few head of cattle, or the destruction of a few hundred acres of rice. The natural moisture of the soil, the scanty population, and the resources of the forests have hitherto served to protect the people from the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly centred in Pilibhít town, the principal staples consisting of rice, borax, spices, sugar, timber, hides, and cattle. The finer descriptions of rice, grown in the Tarái District, are mostly collected at Neoriá, a town inhabited by Banjáras, about nine miles north of Pilibhít town. The rice is husked here, and when re-sold passes under the name of Pilibhít rice. Borax and spices come principally from Barmdeo, a mart in Kumáun District at the foot of the hills, to which the hillmen come every cold season to exchange their products for those of Pilibhít traders, consisting chiefly of salt, cloth, brass vessels, and hardware. Large timber comes principally from the Kumáun and Nepál forests, but the supply of late years has been scanty and uncertain. Sugarcane is largely grown in the District, and the raw material is manufactured into sugar in Pilibhít and Bisalpur towns. Considerable capital is employed in this manufacture. The cattle trade is in the hands of dealers from other Districts, who annually visit Pilibhít, and purchase young animals from the vast herds which graze in the open pastures of the Sárda and in the forests. Trade is

also carried on with Nepál, which, although at present comparatively small, is capable of indefinite expansion, contingent on the opening of new and improved means of communication, and the removal of harassing restrictions imposed by the Nepál authorities. The imports from Nepál, consisting chiefly of rice and grain, gums and resins, amounted in 1882 to the value of £14,908; while the exports into Nepál from Pilibhít, principally salt and cotton goods, were valued at £4732.

Means of Communication.—With the single exception of the road to Bareilly, no metalled roads exist in the District; but fair-weather roads, partially bridged, converge from every direction on Pilibhít town. Total length of made roads, 245 miles. A continuation of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway from Bareilly to Pilibhít, for a distance of 30 miles, was opened for traffic in 1884.

Administration.—Pilibhít District is under the administrative charge of a Magistrate-Collector, assisted by two Deputy Magistrates. The Pilibhít and Bisalpur *tahsíls* are each under the separate charge of a *tahsíldár*, while Puranpur *tahsíl* is entrusted to an officer of inferior rank, styled a *peshkár*. Two *munsifs*, subordinate to the Judge of Bareilly, are stationed in the District at Pilibhít and Bisalpur towns. They exercise civil powers only, and their jurisdiction extends over a portion of Bareilly District. The total revenue of the District in 1881–82 amounted to £86,489, namely, imperial, £70,531; local, £11,967; and municipal, £3991. In 1883–84, the imperial revenue of the District amounted to £88,617, of which the following were the principal items:—Land revenue, £68,293; stamps, £4492; excise, £4574; provincial rates, £8361; assessed taxes, £840; registration, £600; and irrigation and navigation receipts, £200. The District contains 8 civil and revenue and 12 magisterial courts. The regular District and town police force in 1883–84 numbered 354 men, maintained at a cost of £3393; besides a village watch or rural police of 1047 men, maintained at a cost of £3778. Long-term prisoners are confined in the Bareilly District jail. The lock-up at Pilibhít contained a daily average of 13·50 prisoners in 1883–84, all males.

Education.—There is no District or *zilá* school in Pilibhít; but its place is supplied by a good Anglo-vernacular school, named after its founder, a former Collector of the District, the Honourable Robert Drummond, which is under the management of the Pilibhít municipality; total number of pupils (1882), 243. There were also in 1882, 2 *tahsíli* schools with 52 pupils, and 62 *halkabandi* or village schools with 2263 pupils. In 1883–84, the total number of inspected schools in Pilibhít District was 73, attended by 2465 pupils. There is also a well-managed girls' school in Pilibhít town, under a Muhammadan schoolmistress. In 1881, the Census Report returned 2448 boys and

31 girls as under instruction, besides 7510 males and 83 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects. — Fever, usually intermittent, though sometimes changing to the remittent type, is endemic throughout the District, but localizes itself most malignantly about the swamps that border on and intersect the forests in Puranpur *tahsíl.* It is most prevalent as well as most fatal in its character at the end of the rains and the commencement of the cold season. It is least frequent in the cold-weather months, and it is popularly believed that the malaria is destroyed or rendered innocuous by the first frosts of December. Apart from fever, Pilibhít may be considered to be, on the whole, a healthy District, and visits of epidemic disease are rare. In 1883–84, the registered deaths in Pilibhít District numbered 13,412, or a rate of 31·79 per thousand of the population, as against a rate of 37·80 per thousand for the previous five years. Of the total deaths in 1883–84, 8841 were assigned to fevers, and 3123 to small-pox, which appeared in an epidemic form in that year throughout Rohilkhand, and in the adjacent Districts of Oudh. Two charitable dispensaries at Pilibhít and Bisalpur towns afforded medical relief in 1883–84 to 532 in-door and 23,006 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Pilibhít, see the *Gazetteer of Bareilly* (from which District the present District of Pilibhít was severed in 1879), published in the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S., vol. v. pp. 499–694 (Government Press, Allahábád, 1879); also the *Census Report for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1881 to 1884.]

Pilibhít.—North-western *tahsíl* of Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces, lying to the south of the submontane Tarái District, and comprising the *parganás* of Pilibhít and Jahánábád. Area, 372 square miles, of which 248 square miles are returned as under cultivation. Population (1872) 200,501; (1881) 183,344, namely, males 96,111, and females 87,233, showing a decrease in population of 17,157, or 8·5 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 135,636; Muhammadans, 47,695; and Christians, 13. Of the 393 villages in the *tahsíl*, 300 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 74 from five hundred to a thousand; 18 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue assessment, exclusive of local rates and cesses levied upon land, £34,954; estimated rental paid by cultivators in money or in kind, £54,139. In 1883, Pilibhít *tahsíl* contained, besides the head-quarter courts, 1 civil and revenue and 5 magisterial courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 69 men; village police (*chaukidárs*), 590.

Pilibhít.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 28° 38′ N., and long. 79° 50′ 50″ E., about 30 miles north-east of Bareilly city, on the left bank of the Deoha river. It is impossible to say when the town was first founded. Nothing appears to be known of it prior to 1740, about which year the Rohillá leader, Háfiz Rahmat Khán, seized both Pilibhít town and *parganá*, and established his capital in the former. The history of the city under Maráthá and British rule is given in the District article. Population (1881) 29,721, namely, males 14,889, and females 14,832. Hindus number 17,197; Muhammadans, 12,520; and Christians, 4. Municipal income (1883–84), £3579, of which £2797 was derived from taxation, chiefly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 10½d. per head.

Pilibhít is a long and straggling town, with more than the usual number of brick-built houses, and of a business-like appearance. It contains two large markets, one of which, Drummond-ganj, named after a former District officer, consists of a large number of good shops, well arranged on a good site. Rice from the Tarái, borax and pepper from Kumáun and Nepál, honey, wax, wool, etc., are bought up at Barmdeo and other submontane marts, by Pilibhít merchants, who afterwards distribute the produce throughout this and neighbouring Districts. In former years, a good deal of timber was imported from the trans-Sárda Tarái; but since the forests of that tract were made over to Nepál, the timber import, and with it the boat-building trade of Pilibhít, has declined. The coarser kind of carpentry still flourishes; and though all wood intended for furniture passes on to Bareilly, country carts are largely made. A small trade is carried on in catechu, boiled from the bark of the *khair* tree (Acacia Catechu). There is a brisk manufacture of metal vessels made from imported materials, and a small manufacture of hempen sacking. But the most important industry is that of sugar-refining. The expressed syrup, after a rude boiling process in its native village, is carted into Pilibhít town, where it is refined. Sugar forms the main export both of the town and District. The chief imports are grain, salt, cotton goods, and cleaned cotton.

The handsomest portion of Pilibhít town is its western outskirt, where stand the remains of the old Rohillá chief's palace, his cathedral mosque (a brick and plaster imitation of the *Jamá Masjid* at Delhi), the Anglo-vernacular school, and the dispensary. All these buildings stand on an open space enclosed and planted with trees. The other public buildings include the Government courts and offices; police station, post-office, public bath (*hammám*), and a *sarái* or native inn. The northern portion of the town is especially liable to inundation during the rains. Pilibhít is now connected by railway with Bareilly

city, 36 miles distant, and six lines of roads converge on the town from different quarters. The Bareilly and Jahánábád roads meet on the opposite or right bank of the Deoha, which they cross together on a bridge of boats. A military encamping ground is situated amidst groves just outside the town on the south.

Pilkhuwa.—Town and municipality in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 28° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 42′ E., in a depression of the plain, 19 miles south-west of Meerut (Merath) city. Population (1881) 5661, namely, Hindus, 5027; Muhammandans, 632; Jain, 1; and Christian, 1. Area of town site, 43 acres. Municipal income (1883–84), £365, of which £304 was derived from octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅞d. per head. The Hindu manufacturing population is engaged in cotton-weaving, which employs 100 looms. There is also some trade in leather and shoes. Mr. Michel of the Masuri factory owns the town with 13 neighbouring villages, having purchased the estate after the Mutiny. Two large Hindu temples; police station, post-office, 2 *saráis*.

Piming.—Pass in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, traversing a lofty ridge in Kunáwar, which forms the boundary between Chinese and British territory. Lat. 31° 49′ N., long. 78° 46′ E.; elevation above sea, 13,518 feet.

Pimpalgáon Rájá.—Town in Buldáná District, Berar. Said to have been founded 800 years ago, by a prince of the herdsman (Ahír) caste, named Pirat Singh; situated in lat. 20° 43′ N., and long. 76° 30′ E., on the river Dayánganga. Population (1881) 4357. It is said to have suffered much from marauders towards the end of the last century, and to have been subsequently ruined by the black-mail levied by Mahádájí Sindhia in 1790, on his way to Poona (Púna) after his expedition against Ghulám Kádir Beg of Delhi. On the south side of the town is a temple to the goddess Renuka, about 30 feet under ground. At the end of the narrow rock-hewn gallery or temple is the idol. Ganesh Dewádaya, a Hindu theologian, flourished here about 1619 A.D. Some of his works are still read and preserved in the neighbourhood. Two Government schools, post-office, and police station.

Pimpalner.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1339 square miles, containing 236 villages. Population (1872) 60,125; (1881) 87,549, namely, 44,563 males and 42,986 females. Hindus number 39,762; Muhammadans, 1629; and 'others,' 46,158. Land revenue (1883), £12,631.

The Sub-division lies partly above and partly below the Sahyádri Hills. It is bounded on the north-west by Baroda territory; on the north by Nandurbár; on the east by Virdel and Dhulia; on the south

by Násik District; and on the west by Baroda. The *desh* or plains are intersected by abrupt mountain ranges, of which the range of the Selbári hills is the most considerable. The *dáng*, or tract below the Sahyádris, is composed of steep hill ranges clothed with forest, inhabited by Bhíls. Climate unhealthy, especially to Europeans and natives of the Deccan; annual rainfall, 25 inches. Fair water-supply, the rivers being utilized for irrigation by means of *bandhárás* or masonry dams. In 1868, when the survey settlement was introduced, there were 4180 holdings, with an average area of 24 acres, paying an average assessment of £2, 2s. 9d. Incidence of land-tax per head, about 4s. 5d. In 1878 there were 176,320 acres actually under cultivation; grain crops occupied 121,781 acres; pulses, 19,609 acres; oil-seeds, 25,167; fibres, 8169 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1594 acres. The Sub-division contained in 1883—criminal courts, 3; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 115 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 232.

Pimpalner. — Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Pimpalner Sub-division. Situated 40 miles west of Dhulia. Population (1872) 2972. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Trade with Surat in oil made from grass. Old fort. Dispensary; post-office.

Pimpládevi.—Bhíl State in the Dáng country, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Pimprí. — Bhíl State in the Dáng country, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Pín (*Pinu* or *Pim*).—River in Kángra District, Punjab; the most important tributary of the Spiti. Rises in the angle of the Mid-Himálaya and Mánirang ranges, and with its affluent, the Parakio, drains one quarter of the Spiti valley. Flows through a barren and rocky glen, shut in on either side by bare precipices; but near the mouth the basin broadens out so as to afford room for 11 villages with their cultivated lands. Finally joins the Spiti, in lat. 32° 6′ N., and long. 78° 11′ E., a little above Dankar, the principal village in the Spiti valley, after a course of 45 miles. Width of bed near the mouth, from 300 to 800 yards.

Pináhat. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the broken strip of country between the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Chambal rivers, and conterminous with Pináhat *parganá*. Area, 341·5 square miles, of which 167 square miles were returned as under cultivation in 1882. Population (1872) 142,155; (1881) 120,529, namely, males 63,524, and females 57,005, showing a decrease of 21,626, or 15·2 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 115,154; Muhammadans, 3491; Jains, 1880; and 'others,' 4. Of the 204 villages in the *tahsíl*, 126 contain less than five hundred inhabitants;

48 from five hundred to a thousand; 29 from one to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue assessment, £20,862, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £25,114. Estimated rental paid by cultivators, £45,052. In 1883, Pináhat *tahsíl* contained 1 magisterial court: number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 56 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 348.

Pináhat.—Town in Pináhat *tahsíl*, Agra District, North-Western Provinces, 33 miles south-east from Agra city, and 14 miles west of Bah, the head-quarters of Pináhat; lat. 26° 52′ 39″ N., long. 78° 24′ 58″ E. Population (1881) 5697, namely, Hindus, 5005; Muhammadans, 653; and Jains, 39. First-class police station; post-office; school; three Hindu temples. Station of the great Trigonometrical Survey. Until January 1882, the town was the head-quarters of the Pináhat *tahsíl*, which was then removed to Bah, and the *tahsíl* is now generally known as Bah-Pináhat.

Pínákini, Northern and Southern.—Two rivers in Southern India.—*See* PENNER.

Pind Dádan Khán.—South central *tahsíl* of Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab; occupying the Salt Range and country to the south. Lat. 32° 26′ to 32° 49′ N., and long. 72° 32′ to 73° 22′ E. Area, 887 square miles, with 211 towns and villages, 26,654 houses, and 38,028 families. Population (1881) 166,186, namely, males 87,047, and females 79,139; average density of population, 166 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 143,273; Hindus, 21,713; Sikhs, 1091; Jains, 58; and Christians, 51. Of the 211 towns and villages, 106 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 52 from five hundred to a thousand; 52 from one thousand to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Average cultivated area for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82, 290 square miles, the principal crops being wheat, *bájra*, barley, *moth*, *joár*, gram, Indian corn, cotton, and vegetables. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £19,362. The administrative staff consists of an Assistant Commissioner, *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, presiding over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3, with head-quarters at Pind Dádan Khán, Ahmádábád, and Jalálpur; strength of regular police, 126 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 109.

Pind Dádan Khán.—Large and flourishing commercial town and municipality in Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Jehlam *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 32° 35′ N., and long. 73° 5′ 20″ E., 1 mile from the north bank of the Jehlam river, and 5 miles from the foot of the Salt Range. Founded in 1623 by Dádan Khán, whose descendants still reside in the town. Population (1868) 17,814; (1881) 16,724, namely, Muhammadans, 10,001; Hindus, 6419; Sikhs,

246; and Jains, 58. Number of houses, 2780. Municipal income (1883-84), £2822, or an average of 3s. 4½d. per head of the town population.

Pind Dádan Khán was till quite lately the trade emporium for the whole neighbourhood, and carried on, besides its local traffic, an extensive export and import trade with the distant marts of the Province. Its traders had their agents at Amritsar, Sakkar, Múltán, Peshawár, and in the countries beyond the border. Lying low, near the bank of the river, its situation was admirably adapted to secure the traffic in salt from the Mayo mines at Kheura, and most of the export trade of the District, which goes down the river to Múltán and Karáchí. The latter item, however, is very uncertain in amount; and since the opening of the new Salt Railway to Miání, the trade in salt is seriously threatened. It is impossible to foresee the result. In certain contingencies, Pind Dádan Khán might recover its hold on the trade; but at present it seems probable that the trade will gravitate to Lála Músa, or eventually to Kheura itself or to Miání. Meanwhile carriage of salt by boat between Pind Dádan Khán and Jehlam has almost ceased. But there is, and probably will continue to be, a large general trade in Pind Dádan Khán for the supply of the Potwár and Talágang. The braziers of the town are an important body, and the pots and pans and other utensils turned out by them are in request in many parts of the Punjab. There is also a considerable weaving industry, and embroidered *lungís* are often sold at high prices. The principal exports are salt towards the south, silk and cotton piece-goods northwards and westwards, and brass and copper wares to the whole neighbourhood. An extensive trade is carried on also in grain, *ghí*, and oil. Pind Dádan Khán imports English piece-goods, cast-iron, zinc, and raw silk from Amritsar and Múltán; woollen fabrics from Kashmír; dried fruits, furs, and woollen stuffs of Central Asia from Peshawár. Among other industries, that of boat-building is largely carried on, and river boats of Pind Dádan Khán make are in request throughout the whole course of the Jehlam. Unglazed pottery of a deep red colour, ornamented with black patterns, and remarkably strong and good in quality, are a speciality of the town, as are also stout leather riding whips made after English patterns. The principal buildings consist of the usual Sub-divisional courts and offices, mission house, and dispensary.

Pindigheb.—South-western *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab; lying between 33° and 33° 47′ N. lat., and between 71° 45′ and 72° 42′ E. long., and consisting of a rugged hilly tract lying along the eastern bank of the Indus. Area, 1517 square miles, with 129 villages and towns, 14,428 houses, and 23,475 families. Population (1881) 103,581, namely, males 54,328, and females 49,253; average density

of population, 68 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 91,839; Hindus, 11,277; Sikhs, 448; Christians, 15; and Pársís, 2. Of the 129 towns and villages, 69 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 33 from five hundred to a thousand; 26 from one to five thousand; and 1 from five to ten thousand inhabitants. The average area under cultivation for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 310½ square miles, or 198,782 acres, the area occupied by the principal crops being—wheat, 100,946 acres; *bájra*, 27,792 acres; barley, 16,190 acres; gram, 10,940 acres; *moth*, 8304 acres; *joár*, 6549 acres; Indian corn, 3921 acres; and cotton, 8359 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £7696. The only local administrative officer is a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3, with stations at Pindigheb, Pind Sultáni, and Makhad, besides 4 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 86 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 90.

Pindigheb. — Town and municipality in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Pindigheb *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 33° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 18′ E., on the road between Ráwal Pindi and Kálabágh. Residence of chiefs of the Jodrah clan of Rájputs, by whom the town was founded. Population (1881) 8583, namely, Muhammadans, 5342; Hindus, 3221; and Sikhs, 20. Number of houses, 1517. Municipal income (1883–84), £334, or 9¼d. per head of the town population. The neighbourhood of the town is famous for its excellent breed of horses; but owing to the scarcity of water, and the consequent absence of pasturage, colts are generally sold across the Indus after being kept for one year only. Trade in grain, cotton, oil, and wool. The surplus grain supplies the cantonments of Ráwal Pindi and Attock. Manufactures of country cloth and soap, exported beyond the Indus. *Tahsíli*, police station, excellent school, dispensary, Government rest-house.

Pinjar.—Village in Akola District, Berar. Lat. 20° 33′ N., long. 77° 17′ E., 24 miles east of Akola town. Population (1881) 3311. Pinjar formerly had 2000 houses, of which only 589 now remain; its decline dates from 1772 A.D., when Madhují Bhonsla laid a heavy tax upon the people. A fine specimen of a Hindu temple exists here, with a Sanskrit inscription. Police station.

Pinjaur (*Pinjore*).—Decayed town in Patiála State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 48′ N., long. 76° 59′ E.; situated at the confluence of two tributaries of the Ghaggar. Residence and pleasure-grounds of the Rájá. Thornton describes an ancient covered well and numerous fragments of Hindu sculpture and architecture that are found here. Fort dismantled by Bourquin, Sindhia's partisan leader.

Pinu or **Pim.**—River in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* PIN.

Pipalgáon.—Village in Brahmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central

Provinces. Population (1881) 2162, namely, Hindus, 2140; Muhammadan, 1; non-Hindu aborigines, 21.

Pipáriá.—Village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) *tahsíl*, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2177, namely, Hindus, 1805; Jains, 224; Muhammadans, 73; non-Hindu aborigines, 75.

Pipáriá.—Village in Kawardhá State, attached to Bilaspur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2205, namely, Hindus, 1758; Satnámis, 209; Kabírpanthís, 70; Muhammadans, 147; non-Hindu aborigines, 21.

Píparwání.—Village in Seoní *tahsíl*, Seoní District, Central Provinces; situated 35 miles south of Seoní town. Population (1881) 2065, namely, Hindus, 1627; Muhammadans, 115; Jains, 11; and non-Hindu aborigines, 312. Village school, weekly market, and police outpost station.

Piplianagar.—Guaranteed Thákurate or chiefship under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. One of the shares of the estate granted to Rájan Khán, brother of the notorious Pindári leader, Chitu, on the settlement of Málwá.—*See* JABRIA BHIL.

Pippli.—*Tahsíl* of Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; comprising the tract of country around Tháneswar, and embracing the three *parganás* of Tháneswar, Sháhábád, and Ládwa. The Tháneswar *parganá* (including Pihewa) contains a population consisting chiefly of Játs, Rájputs, Rors, and Gujars. It consists of a high tract of poor soil dependent for cultivation chiefly on rain, and on the very uncertain floods of the Sarsuti (Saraswati). The villages in the south of Pihewa get no hill-stream navigation. Sháhábád *parganá* is locally known as Túharwára, from the fact of the villages being owned by Rájputs of the Túhar clan. It is a rich tract, and watered by the overflowings of the Markanda and Umla streams. In the Ládwa *parganá*, the eastern portion is protected from drought by the Jumna river and canal, which has raised the water level, and made well-irrigation easy. The western part of the *parganá* is much poorer.

Area of Pippli *tahsíl*, 745 square miles, with 495 towns and villages, 14,122 houses, and 47,899 families. Population (1881) 209,341, namely, males 113,700, and females 95,641; average density of population, 281 persons per square mile, or excluding towns, 244 per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 142,160; Muhammadans, 62,126; Sikhs, 5020; Jains, 29; and Christians, 6. Of the 495 towns and villages, 386 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 80 from five hundred to a thousand; 27 from one to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The average cultivated area for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 285½ square miles, or 182,746 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 87,900 acres; gram, 34,720 acres; barley, 15,470 acres; Indian

corn, 12,541 acres; rice, 7685 acres; *joár*, 3665 acres; sugar-cane, 6547 acres; cotton, 2386 acres; and tobacco, 1389 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £18,712. The local administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 1 *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 7, with stations at Pippli, Sháhábád, Tháneswar, Pihewa, Radaur, Sanghaur, and Ládwa, with a Baluch guard at Ismáilábád. Strength of regular police, 146 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 491.

Pipplí.—Village on the Subarnarekha river, Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 34′ N., long. 87° 22′ E. The site of the first English factory on this coast, founded in 1634 on the ruins of an earlier Portuguese settlement. Pipplí was ruined by the silting up of the river at its mouth. During the first half of the present century, the place lingered on as a silt-locked village; but a recent report states that no trace of the town now exists, at any rate under the same name. The name is apparently preserved in one or two villages in the neighbourhood of the Subarnarekha, called Pimpal.

Pipráich.—Market village in Mahárájganj *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Pharend river, and on the unmetalled Padrauna road, 13 miles east-north-east of Gorakhpur town. Population (1881) 2932. The market flanks either side of the road as it passes through the town. A fair local trade in grain, cloth, and metal vessels is carried on; and a good deal of sugar is refined. The village, however, is not a thriving one, and the progress of the market has been checked by competition with the neighbouring mart of Sidháwa. Police station, post-office, elementary school, and Sivaite temple.

Píram.—Island in the Gulf of Cambay.—*See* PERIM.

Pírmaid.—Hill station in Travancore State, Madras Presidency; the centre of the northern coffee country of Travancore, with a growing European community. Lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 77° E.; average elevation, 3000 feet. Round the station are numerous coffee-gardens, occupying about 10,000 acres, of which a considerable proportion is in bearing. Fairly constructed roads communicate with Alleppi and Trevandrum on the west, and Madura on the east.

Pír Mangho (*Pír Magar*).—Valley, hot springs, temple, and tank in Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* MAGAR TALAO.

Pírnagar.—*Parganá* in Sítápur *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north and north-east by Biswán, on the east by Bári, on the south by Gundlamau, and on the west by Máchhrehta. Area, 44 square miles, or 27,956 acres, of which 17,164 acres are cultivated and 4830 acres cultivable. Population (1881) 19,692, namely, males 10,428, and females 9264. The incidence of the Government land

revenue is at the rate of 2s. 5½d. per cultivated acre; 1s. 11d. per acre of assessed area; and 1s. 6⅛d. per acre of total area. The *parganá* contains 54 villages, of which 15 are held under *tálukdári* and 39 under *zamíndárí* tenure. Bais Kshattriyas own 48 villages; Bráhmans, 3; Káyasths, 2; and Musalmáns, 1. The villages are all small, none having a population exceeding 1000. There is not a single masonry house in the *parganá*, the people having a superstition against using burnt bricks or tiles for their dwellings. This superstition is not peculiar to Pírnagar, being found in many other parts of the District.

Pirozpur. — Sub-division of Bákarganj District, Bengal. Area, 692 square miles; villages, 945; houses, 52,049. Population (1872) 405,797; (1881) 447,306, namely, males 225,436, and females 221,870, showing an increase of 41,509, or 10·23 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 246,569; Hindus, 200,681; Brahmos, 11; and Christians, 45. Proportion of males in total population, 50·4 per cent.; average density of population, 644 persons per square mile; number of inhabitants per village, 473; houses per square mile, 77; inmates per house, 8·6. This Sub-division comprises the four police circles of Pirozpur, Mathbári, Bhandária, and Swarúkati. It contained in 1883, 3 civil and 2 criminal courts, a regular police force of 90 men, and a village watch numbering 968. The Sub-divisions of Pirozpur and Madaripur (now in Farídpur District) were originally established with the object of suppressing robberies on the Kachná river.

Pírpáintí (*Peerpointee*).—Large village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal, and a station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. Lat. 25° 17′ 52″ N., long. 87° 27′ 40″ E. The village, which is also the site of a flourishing indigo factory, is situated about 2 miles from the railway station, and contains a *bázár* about half a mile in length. Local traders are connected with firms at Sahibganj and Colgong, and a considerable business is carried on in the export of country produce. Some stone is quarried in the neighbourhood. Police outpost.

Pír Panjál (‘*The Saint's Mountain*’).—A lofty range in the Native State of Kashmír (Cashmere); separating that State, on its south-western side, from the Punjab. Runs north-west and south-east, from the Báramula Pass to that of the Pír Panjál or Nándan Sár, a distance of about forty miles; the highest peaks attaining an elevation of about 16,500 feet above sea-level. The geological formatition is basaltic,—an amygdaloidal trap, beautifully marked in some places. The range is named from a *pír* or Muhammadan saint, whose shrine in the Pír Panjál Pass receives the offerings of all devout Musalmán travellers. The most picturesque road into Kashmír, and one of the easiest and most frequented, traverses the Pír Panjál Pass, and is known as the Gujavát and Pír Panjál route. The pass itself is crossed in the eleventh

stage from Gujavát, between the halting-stations of Porhiána and Aliábád Sarái. The top of the pass, about six miles from Porhiána, is a fine grassy plateau about half a mile wide, with an elevation of about 11,500 feet, gradually sloping down to the Aliábád *sarái.* In clear weather the Shahdera *minárs* at Lahore are visible, though distant about 130 miles.

Písangán.—Town in Ajmere District, Ajmere-Merwára Division, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 24′ N., long. 74° 25′ E. Population (1881) 3375. Distant from Ajmere city 20 miles. Residence of the *Istimrárdár* of Písangán. By reason of its position in the immediate neighbourhood of Márwár, it is the centre of the cotton and tobacco trade. There is here an old Jain temple which derives its name from its being situated near the *Priya Sangam,* or junction of the Saraswati and Ságarmati streams. Water-supply good. Post-office and dispensary.

Pishín (or *Peshín*).—Formerly a District of Southern Afghánistán, situated between 30° 10′ and 31° 15′ N. lat., and 66° 10′ and 67° 50′ E. long. Estimated area, 3600 square miles; estimated population, which has been under British administration since 1878, 60,000.

Physical Aspects.—Pishín may be roughly described as a large plain (Pishín proper), surrounded on three sides by hills, which are all included in the District. From the scarp of Toba hill on the north and the line of the main watershed on the east, the whole country slopes away to the south-west. It consists of treeless flats or alluvial valleys (of which the Pishín plain is by far the most important), divided by ranges of bare and rocky hills, preserving a remarkable parallelism with one another, and all running north-east and south-west. The average elevation of the Pishín plain is about 5000 feet above sea-level, while the sub-districts to the east and north are higher. On the west, the Khwája Amrán peak rises 8864 feet above sea-level; and the general height of the range is between 7000 and 8000 feet. On the north, the edge of Toba nearest to Pishín is about 8000 feet; and the Kund mountain nearly 11,000 feet. Takátú, on the south, is also about 11,000 feet.

The streams on quitting the stony *dáman,* or hill country, for the soft soil of the plain, have cut for themselves immense beds, quite out of proportion to the amount of water which they bring down. These cuttings are 30 to 50 yards wide and 10 to 25 feet deep, with perpendicular and scarped banks. The alluvial soil, where it exists, is rich and deep, and from its clayey nature is apt to become soft and slippery after rain or snow. Irrigation is conducted with a total disregard of any roads or pathways that may exist.

Hares and ravine deer are found in the valleys, and a few *uriál* or wild sheep in the hills. Ibex are fairly numerous on Takátú. Wolves, jackals, and foxes are common. The hill leopard and small sloth bear

occur on the higher and more remote hills. Of game birds, the *chikor* and partridge are common. Sand-grouse are often extremely numerous. The migratory game birds which visit India in the winter are found in Pishín, being most abundant at the times when they are coming from and returning to their northern breeding places in October and November, and again in March.

History.—Pishín formed a portion of the dominions of Ahmad Sháh, Duráni. A fragment of what is now Pishín was ceded by Ahmad Sháh to Nasír Khán, Mír of Khelát, in 1770. On the fall of the Sadozai dynasty and the partition of the kingdom among the sons of Paindah Khán, Barakzai, Pishín was included in the Province allotted to the Kandahár *sardárs*, who exercised, however, only a limited administration over this tract. The British occupation of Quetta in 1876 aroused an increased interest in Pishín on the part of the Amír of Kábul, and he attempted to stop the through traffic. The Amír's Government was thoroughly unpopular, and not the faintest show of resistance was offered to the British troops on their advance from Quetta, nor has dissatisfaction been shown during the years the tract has remained in the hands of the British. Pishín was occupied by British troops in December 1878, and assigned to the British by the treaty of Gandamak, 25th May 1879. Since the assignment, Pishín has remained under British administration, and its history has been generally uneventful. The only exception worth noticing is the conduct of the Achakzai tribe (on the Khwája Amrán range) in the autumn of 1880. While the British force in Kandahár was besieged by Ayúb Khán, the Achakzais were openly hostile; but they dispersed on Ayúb Khán's defeat, and their submission was completed by a punitive expedition led against them at the end of September 1880 by Brigadier-General Baker.

Population.—In May 1881, Colonel (now Sir Oliver) St. John estimated the gross population of Pishín at from 50,000 to 60,000. Deducting the Achakzais, a wandering tribe on the further side of the Khwája Amrán, and those members of other tribes who may be absent for various reasons, the latter number approximately represents the resident population.

The tribes of Pishín and their approximate numbers are—Achakzais, 20,000; Tarins, 14,500; Sayyids, 6500; and Kákars, 40,000: total, 81,000. The Achakzais are a Duráni clan and an offshoot of the Barakzais. The sections who are more or less directly connected with the District are alone included in the above total, and even of these a considerable number are always beyond its limits. It is doubtful whether more than about 5000 Achakzais are ever in the District. They are a purely pastoral tribe. The Tarins belong to the Tor branch of that race. They are agriculturists and carriers. The Sayyids are traders and cultivators, and hold more land than any other class. The

Kákars are nearly all settled agriculturists, but they also possess large flocks and own 112 villages and hamlets.

A good many Kákars and a few Achakzais and Tarins proceed to India every year in search of employment as labourers on public works, etc. Many Sayyids also are always absent engaged in trade. Taken as a whole, the inhabitants of Pishín are peaceable and well disposed. The Achakzais, indeed, are predatory, and have a reputation for turbulence; but they have not given much trouble. The Sayyids, being comparatively well off and enlightened, have been the best friends of the British. The dress, manners, and customs of the people are in all essentials those of the inhabitants of Southern Afghánistán generally. They are a hardy and fairly industrious peasantry, not particularly fanatical, and seem well satisfied with British rule.

The settled population of Pishín (cultivators and traders) live in houses; the pastoral people in tents (*kizhdis*). It is not uncommon for families to spend part of the year in one description of habitation, and part in another. The houses in Pishín proper are built of mud in a rectangular form, and contain only one room, with a raised circular hearth to serve as a fireplace at one end, while the other end is frequently occupied by sheep and cattle.

The tents (*kizhdis*) are comfortable, roomy, clean, and warm, notwithstanding that camels, goats, sheep, and poultry are sheltered under one roof with their owners. The tents are about 30 feet long by 15 wide. The centre is supported by slim poles 7 feet high, and the sides by others 4 feet high, across which are passed light ribs of wood. Over this framework is stretched a single sheet of tough and waterproof black haircloth woven in lengths two yards wide and sewn together. The interior is divided into two by a curtain of corn sacks. Of these divisions, one is excavated to a depth of 2 feet for the camels and oxen; the other is smooth and swept clean. In the centre is a circular hole for a fireplace, for the smoke of which there is no outlet, except the openings at either end of the tent.

Agriculture.—The cultivable area of Pishín is probably about one-third of the whole, say 1200 square miles. The methods of cultivation are simple and careless. The chief food-grains grown are wheat, barley, maize, and millet. The straw of the first three, when chopped, is a valuable commodity, and much used instead of grass for feeding horses and other animals. In addition to grain, lucerne, water-melons, and musk-melons are cultivated. Irrigation is carried on either from natural streams, or from *karezes*, a series of shafts connected under ground by tunnels. The irrigated area is estimated at three-fourths of the total cultivated area. The use of manure is well understood, but the supply is deficient, and is confined to lucerne and melon fields.

Trade and Manufacture.—Except the transit trade between India and Afghánistán, Pishín has little or no commerce, and no manufactures or produce for export. A considerable trade in horses, however, is carried on; the Sayyids of Pishín being large dealers, and supplying many hundred remounts yearly to the Bombay and Madras Presidencies. The horses exported to India are purchased at Herát, or in countries lying to its west and north; and they are only kept in Pishín long enough to get them into condition. About 1000 *maunds* of salt are annually made. Formerly the greater portion was exported to Kandahár, but it is now (1881) bought up locally for commissariat purposes.

Revenue and Administration.—Pishín is under the control of the Governor-General's Agent in Balúchistán, whose head-quarters are at Quetta. A Political Agent is in subordinate charge of the administration, and lives generally at the small town of Pishín (formerly known as New Bázár), where there are also a *tahsíldár*, *náib tahsíldár*, police *thánά*, sub-treasury, commissariat store, telegraph, and post offices. Pishín fort is the only military station; it is occupied by one regiment of Bombay infantry and a squadron of Bombay cavalry. Bodies of tribal levies are distributed at important points.

The revenue of Pishín is derived principally from land. A report submitted by the Political Agent in 1885 classifies the inhabitants of Pishín from a revenue point of view as follows:—

'I. The *muáfidárs* or those who pay nothing, a very large class, mostly Sayyids and Achakzais.

'II. Those who pay a fixed assessment in cash or kind, or both, the assessment being calculated originally on a rough valuation of the gross produce of their lands. To this class belong the Kákars of the Balozai and Gwal valleys, and the Kákar Lorah villages.

'III. Those who pay a fixed cash assessment in lieu of military service, the assessment being calculated at so much per head on the total number of men-at-arms the village was formerly bound to furnish. To this class belong about half the Tarins and Parezuns of the Pishín Valley and the Kákars of Barshor. The Tarins pay £1, 9s. per *naukar* or man-at-arms, and the Kákars £2, 10s. and £2, 18s. Those paying this assessment (known locally as *ghám-i-naukar*) are exempt from all other dues whatever.

'IV. The villages in which *batai* or a division of the crops is made, the Government share varying from $\frac{1}{6}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$. To this class belong nearly all the Tarins on the east of the Lorah river—that is to say, the Tor Tarins proper as distinguished from the Parezuns. These men originally paid the *ghám-i-naukar*, or tax in lieu of personal service, now paid only by class III.; but years ago, they voluntarily adopted the present system in exchange. Grass and straw and other village produce were at that time of little or no value, and they preferred

parting with a heavy share of their produce to paying a fixed sum in cash.'

The land revenue collections in 1884-85 amounted to nearly £9000. Under the Afghán system, which is still maintained, a *maldaghi*, or poll-tax on cattle is also levied, except from Sayyids and the class paying a fixed cash assessment in lieu of military service. The rates, per head of cattle, are—camel, 2s.; bullock, 2s.; donkey, 1s.; sheep, 1½d.; lamb, 0¾d. There are also a few dues yielding from £10 to £30 per annum. Excise revenue is also collected, but the amount fluctuates greatly, the highest total in any year since the British occupation being £716, and the lowest £26, 4s.

Military Importance.—The strategic value of Pishín is considerable. It is the meeting-place of a great number of routes leading from Sind and the Punjab Frontier Districts to Kandahár. These routes are perfectly practicable for troops, and have been traversed by considerable bodies. They are, however, impassable by wheeled carriage, and indifferently furnished with supplies. The possession of Pishín places the occupant within easy reach of Kandahár, which is only six marches from Chamán.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Pishín is trying, not only to natives of India, but also to Europeans, until both are acclimatized. There are four well-marked seasons, as in England, and the temperature ranges from a moderate heat in summer to a severe cold in winter. The climate, however, is rather relaxing. In summer, Europeans are apt to suffer from diarrhœa, dysentery, and affections of the liver; natives from diarrhœa and dysentery. In winter, pneumonia and other lung diseases are very fatal to natives.

Pitári.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, about 4 miles north-west of Unao town. Population (1881) 2964, namely, 2781 Hindus and 183 Muhammadans. An ancient village, dating from the time of Rájá Unwant Singh, the reputed founder of Unao.

Pithápur (*Pittápur*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. For the most part an important *zamíndárí* tract. Area, 200 square miles. Population (1881) 68,161, namely, 33,502 males and 34,659 females, dwelling in 1 town and 50 villages, containing 12,610 houses. Hindus number 66,517; Muhammadans, 1641; and Christians, 3. The *zamíndárí* lies between the eastern branch of the Godávari and the District of Vizagapatam, and contains 128 villages in different *táluks*. The Rájá's ancestors are said to have come from Oudh. The grant of the estate dates from about 1647. Total rental, £81,150; *peshkash* or quit-rent, £24,900.

Pithápur.—Town in Pithápur *táluk*, and head-quarters of the Pithápur *zamíndárí*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 6′ 45″ N., long. 82° 18′ 40″ E. Population (1871) 9240, living in 2318

houses; (1881) 11,593, namely, 5636 males and 5957 females, occupying 1894 houses. Hindus number 10,512, and Muhammadans 1081. Post-office, courts, and good schools. The town is the centre of the Pithápur *zamíndárí*, and the residence of the *zamíndár*.

Pithoragarh.—Military outpost in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 35′ 35″ N., long. 80° 14′ 30″ E. The troops are cantoned on a low ridge in the Shore valley, for the protection of the Nepál frontier. Population (1881) 438. *Bázár*, stone-built hospital. Fort Loudoun, 100 yards west of the lines, commands the station. Elevation above sea-level, 5334 feet.

Pithoriá.—Estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 20 miles north-west of Ságar town. Area, 51 square miles; comprising 26 villages. In 1818, when Ságar was acquired from the Peshwá by the British, Ráo Rámchandra Ráo, a child ten years old, held Deorí and the Panch Mahál. In 1819 the Panch Mahál was transferred to Sindhia, and the Ráo's mother received in lieu thereof a pension of £125 per month. On her death, the Ráo requested the Government to assign him a tract of land instead of the money payment. Pithoriá with 18 other villages was granted to him; but as their revenue did not equal the required amount, 7 other villages were added. Government assessment, £313. Pithoriá, the chief village (lat. 24° 4′ N., long. 78° 38′ E.), contains a fort, built about 1750 by Umráo Singh, a Rájput, to whom the place had been granted rent-free by Govind Pandit, the Peshwá's governor at Ságar. At the market, held every Thursday, little trade takes place.

Pitihrá (*Patera*).—Estate in the extreme south-east of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Area, 120 square miles; comprising 86 villages, and yielding a revenue of about £2472 to the Rájá. The whole estate, except 8 villages, lies in the Sub-division of Deorí. About 1730, the Gond Rájá of Gaurjhámar seized Deorí, but was expelled ten years later by the Maráthás. His son then plundered the country, till the Maráthás pacified him by the cession of the four estates of Pitihrá, Muár, Keslí, and Tarárá, containing 8 villages. He died in 1747; and his grandson Kíráj Singh obtained from the Maráthás in 1798 another estate, called Ballái, comprising 53 villages. At the cession of Ságar to the British in 1818, Kíráj Singh was not disturbed; but on his death in 1827, 30 villages in Ballái were resumed, and the remainder were secured to his son Balwant Singh. The residence of the Rájá is at Pitihrá, a village on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, with a population of about 800.

Pitlád.—Sub-division and town in Baroda State.—*See* PETLAD.

Plassey (*Palásí*, from *palás*, the red flower of the Butea frondosa).—Battle-field on the Bhágírathí river, Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 88° 17′ 45″ E. Of this memorable scene of Clive's victory

over Suráj-ud-daulá, on the 23rd June 1757, only a small fragment now remains. The Bhágírathí, on whose left or east bank the battle was fought, has eaten away the scene of the fight; as the Jalangí river, in the same District, has eaten away the city of Nadiyá, the ancient capital of Bengal. In 1801, 3000 trees of Clive's famous mango grove were still standing; now, only one has survived the ravages of the river and of time. A general of the Nawáb, who fell in the battle, lies buried beneath it. As early as 1801, the river had eaten away the actual field of battle; and a traveller recorded in that year that 'a few miserable huts, literally overhanging the water, are the only remains of the celebrated Plassey.' The neighbourhood relapsed into jungle, and was long a favourite haunt of river *dakáits*. Part of the site is now covered by the waters of the Bhágírathí, the rest stretches out as a richly cultivated plain; and the solitary surviving tree of the historic mango grove is held sacred by the Muhammadans. The high road from Calcutta *viâ* Krishnagar to Berhampur passes close by the field; 96 miles north of Calcutta, and 22 south of Berhampur.

Poddatúru.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PRODDUTUR.

Pohrá.—Village in Sákolí *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3111, namely, Hindus, 2587; Muhammadans, 169; Jains, 12; non-Hindu aborigines, 343.

Poicha.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 3¾ square miles. There are 6 shareholders. The revenue was estimated in 1882 at £245; tribute of £150, 2s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The estate lies on the Mahi river between Kanora and Bhadarwa.

Poini (more correctly *Ponnê*).—River, called near the source Dámalcheruvu, rising among the high hills south-west of Chandragiri, in the north of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency, and flowing about 45 miles south to the Palár between Vellore (Vellúr) and Arcot. Largely used for irrigation by means of anicuts, which force the water into tanks. CHITTUR is on the bank of one of the tributaries.

Point Calimere (*Kallimedu*).—The most southerly point of the Coromandel coast, Madras Presidency.—*See* CALIMERE.

Point, False.—Cape, with lighthouse, on the west coast of the Bay of Bengal.—*See* FALSE POINT.

Point Palmyras.—Headland in Cuttack District, Bengal.—*See* PALMYRAS POINT.

Pokaran (*Pokharn*).—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 55′ N., and long. 71° 57′ 45″ E., on the route from Phulodi to Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere city), 66 miles east of the latter place. It is situated close to the deserted town of the same name, and contained when Thornton wrote (1862) 3000 houses. No information as to the

population was supplied by the *darbár* authorities for the Census of 1881. The town is surrounded by an uncemented stone wall. A conspicuous Jain temple, on an elevated situation, marks the site of the old deserted city, and near it are the monuments of the deceased members of the chief's family. Being situated on one of the great commercial routes between Eastern Rájputána and Sind, the transit trade is considerable. Red sandstone crops out or lies near the surface, and there are several tanks near the town. It is an appanage of the leading noble of Jodhpur, who holds the post of *pardhan*, and is entitled to a seat on the royal elephant immediately behind the Mahárájá.

Pokhar.—Town, lake, and place of pilgrimage in Ajmere-Merwára, Rájputána.—*See* PUSHKAR.

Pokri.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 20′ N., long. 79° 15′ E. Population (1881) 185. Small copper mines, once very productive, but now of little value. Elevation above sea-level, 6110 feet.

Pol (*Pal*).—Petty State within the Mahi Kántha Agency, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated on the north-eastern frontier of Mahi Kántha. The boundary marches with that of Mewár in Rájputána. Population (1872) 4919; (1881) 6629. The tract is wild and mountainous. Cultivated area, 42 square miles (27,500 acres). Chief agricultural products — millets, wheat, maize, gram, etc. No mines or manufactures. The ruling family is descended from Jai Chand, the last Ráhtor sovereign of Kanauj. Jai Chand (1193) left two sons, Seojí and Sonakjí. The former founded the present family of Márwár; the latter established himself at Edar in 1257. For twenty-six generations, the chiefs of this line bore the title of Ráo of Edar; but the last independent prince, Jagannáth, was driven out by the Muhammadans in 1656. The family retired into the hills, fixed their head-quarters at Pol, and were known thenceforward as the Ráos of that mountainous tract. The Ráos of Pol pay no tribute, the difficult nature of their territory having apparently saved them from the exactions of the Gáekwár. The present (1883) chief, Ráo Hamír Singhjí, is thirty-six years of age, and manages the State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £2800. The State has one school with 24 pupils. The family follows the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession, and hold no deed allowing adoption. Transit duties are levied in the State. Rainfall in 1882, 26 inches.

Polávaram.—*Zamíndárí* estate in the 'Northern Circars,' Godávari District, Madras Presidency, containing 128 villages. Assessment imposed at the Permanent Settlement (1803), £10,570. Previous to that time, this estate, like the others in the District, was the scene

of constant disputes and struggles (*see* GODAVARI DISTRICT). Between 1785 and 1790 especially, the disturbances became so serious that it was necessary to repress them with the help of the military. Again, in 1800, the *zamíndár's* fort, situated on the Godávari river, was captured and destroyed, and the whole tract was placed under martial law. The population of Polávaram village, situated in Ernagudem *táluk* (lat. 17° 14′ 50″ N., long. 81° 40′ 40″ E.), was 2734 in 1872, and 3552 in 1881. Number of houses (1881), 737.

Polekurru (*Pálkuru*).—Town in Coconada *táluk*, Godâvari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 47′ N., long. 82° 18′ E. Population (1871) 6429, inhabiting 1333 houses; and (1881) 5141, inhabiting 1243 houses.

Poli. — Town in Pullampet *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 12′ 45″ N., long. 79° 13′ E. Population (1881) 6947, inhabiting 1577 houses. Hindus number 6351; Muhammadans, 595; and Christian, 1.

Pollachi.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 710 square miles. Population (1881) 172,909, namely, 83,737 males and 89,172 females, dwelling in 1 town and 160 villages, and occupying 37,815 houses. Hindus number 169,570; Muhammadans, 3235; Christians, 95; and 'others,' 9. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; and regular police, 59 men. Land revenue, £24,069.

Pollachi.—Head-quarters town of Pollachi *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 39′ 20″ N., long. 77° 3′ 5″ E. Population (1871) 4922, inhabiting 724 houses; and (1881) 5082, inhabiting 700 houses. Hindus number 4468; Muhammadans, 548; and Christians, 66. Large weekly fair, hospital, and travellers' bungalow. Residence of Head Assistant Collector and Magistrate of Coimbatore District.

Pollilúr. — Town in Conjeveram *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 58′ 20″ N., long. 79° 45′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 933, inhabiting 139 houses; and (1881) 1068, inhabiting 155 houses.

Polúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 443 square miles. Population (1881) 106,818, namely, 52,713 males and 54,105 females, dwelling in 1 town and 194 villages, containing 13,357 houses. Hindus number 101,147; Muhammadans, 3292; Christians, 1585; and 'others,' 794. The northern and western parts of the *táluk* are hilly, the rest is tolerably flat. The soil is black and red clay mixed with sand and gravel; in the vicinity of the hills a rich loam is found. On the whole, Polúr is a fertile *táluk*, and raises good crops of rice, spiked millet, *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), and *ragí* (Eleusine corocana). Twenty-

three square miles are reserved forests; leopards, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and wild hog are common; bison are not rare, and tigers and elephants are occasionally found. The manufactures are weaving and shoemaking. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 84 men. Land revenue, £18,771.

Polúr.—Head-quarters town of Polúr *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 30′ 45″ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E. Situated about 27 miles south of Vellore. Population (1881) 5649, dwelling in 765 houses. Hindus number 4310; Muhammadans, 1227; and Christians, 112. Polúr is poorly built, with narrow and ill-arranged streets. A small ruined fort stands near the town. To the west is a large tank, which irrigates 1100 acres, bearing an assessment of nearly £500. Five miles from the town magnetic iron-ore occurs in small nodules. Sub-jail; post-office.

Ponámpet.—Village in the Kiggatnád *táluk* of Coorg, on the road from Gonikopal to Hudikeri. Founded by Ponápa, a former Diwán, from whom it takes its name. Population (1881) 783. Head-quarters of the *parpattigár*. Weekly market on Mondays.

Ponáni.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Area, 390 square miles. Population (1881) 392,654, namely, 194,150 males and 198,504 females, dwelling in 72 parishes or *amshams*, containing 70,625 houses. Hindus number 231,402; Muhammadans, 146,868; Christians, 14,363; and 'others,' 21. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 17; regular police, 159 men. Land revenue, £31,238.

Ponáni.—Head-quarters town of Ponáni *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 47′ 10″ N., long. 75° 57′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 12,421, inhabiting 1919 houses. Muhammadans number 9916; Hindus, 2478; Christians, 26; and 'other,' 1. A busy Máppillá seaport, the most important between Cochin and Calicut, trading largely in salt, and possessing water communication with the Tirúr station on the south-west line of the Madras Railway, as well as with Cochin and Travancore. Ponáni is inhabited almost exclusively by Máppillá Muhammadans, whose Tangal or high priest lives here; and it is the centre of Musalmán education on the coast, possessing a kind of religious college, which confers degrees.

In 1662, after the Dutch took Cochin, the English retired to Ponáni. In 1782, Colonel Macleod landed troops here from Bombay, and was joined by Colonel Humberstone's force. The latter had given up the projected siege of Pálghát, and, abandoning the siege train at Mangarikota, fell back by forced marches, followed and harassed by Tipú and Lally. Once within Macleod's lines, however, the united forces turned on the pursuers and repulsed them. Owing to the death of Haidar

Alí, the attack was not renewed. When Colonel Hartley (1790) made his brilliant descent upon the west coast, the Ponáni people gave in their adhesion readily. Average annual value of the trade of Ponáni for the five years ending 1883-84—imports, £9567, and exports, £44,195. In 1883-84, the imports were valued at £11,467, and the exports at £51,696.

Ponáni.—River rising in the Anamalai Mountains, Madras Presidency. Flows past Pálghát across Malabar District, and enters the sea at Ponáni town, in lat. 10° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 58′ E. It is about 120 miles in length, and flows for about 70 miles parallel to the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Navigable by small craft for many months to a considerable distance above its mouth, and is largely used for timber-floating.

Pondamalái.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PUNAMALLU.

Pondicherri (*Puducheri, Puthuvai, Pulcheri*).—Chief settlement of the French in the East Indies; situated on the Coromandel coast, surrounded by the Cuddalore *táluk* of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. The town lies in lat. 11° 55′ 57″ N., and long. 79° 52′ 33″ E. Population (1876) 156,094; (1882) 140,945.

The settlement forms part of the delta of the Penner (Ponnaiyár) river, and a great portion of its surface is alluvial. Many artesian wells have been sunk, and excellent drinking water is obtainable. The hills known as *Les Montagnes Rouges* form a natural girdle to the country about Pondicherri. The climate is healthy. In January, the temperature is from 25° to 28° centigrade, and from May to September from 31° to 40° centigrade.

'The first French settlement at Pondicherri,' says Mr. Garstin, 'was in 1674, under François Martin. In 1693 it was captured by the Dutch, but restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege, under Admiral Boscawen, was unsuccessful. The second, under Colonel (afterwards Sir) Eyre Coote, in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place; it was restored in 1763. It was again besieged and captured in 1778, by Sir Hector Munro, and restored in 1785. It was captured a third time, by Colonel Braithwaite, in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.' [For a fuller account of the history of Pondicherri, see article FRENCH SETTLEMENTS.]

'The territory of Pondicherri comprises four Districts—Pondicherri, Villianúr, Oulgaret, and Báhúr—containing 93 large villages and 141 hamlets. Its area is 29,145 hectares = 115 square miles, and its population, according to the *Annuaire des Etablissements Français dans L'Inde* for 1884, 140,945 souls. The town of Pondicherri is divided into two parts, the White Town and the Black Town, separated from one another by a canal. The White Town is by the seaside, and is well

built. The chief public buildings are—Government house, the parish church, the Foreign Missions church, two pagodas, the new *bázár*, the clock tower, the lighthouse, the barracks, the military hospital, and the town hall. A handsome statue of Dupleix stands on the esplanade opposite the landing-place. There is also a neat and well-cared-for iron screw-pile pier; and a supply of drinking water has been brought into the town which for purity is perhaps unrivalled in any other town in Southern India.'

A colonial college (with 185 pupils in 1883) and 172 other schools, attended by nearly 5000 children, provide for the educational wants of the territory; and a public library of 12,000 volumes, a Catholic mission, 2 orphanages, and 2 refuges are among its institutions. The chief industries are weaving and dyeing. The former has of late years languished in consequence of European competition, but there are still 4000 weavers. The revenue of Pondicherri was in 1883 £57,315. In 1879, railway communication was opened between Pondicherri and the South Indian system at Villupuram.

Ponnani.—Town and river, Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PONANI.

Pon-na-reip (*Pun-na-riep* or *Poon-na-riep*).—Village in the Mo-nyo township of Tharawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Population (1881) 351.

Ponne. — River in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* POINI.

Ponneri.—*Táluk* of Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Area, 347 square miles. Population (1881) 107,543, namely, 54,522 males and 53,021 females, dwelling in 241 villages, containing 17,249 houses. Hindus number 103,569; Muhammadans, 3674; Christians, 294; and 'others,' 6. The *táluk* is an almost unbroken flat of rice-fields and desert plain, while its eastern and northern borders are covered with salt swamps and sandy tracts. Average rainfall, 35 inches. Once famous for its manufacture of muslins at Arni, but the skill and the manufacture (except of common cloth) are now extinct. Red handkerchiefs and Muhammadan cloths are woven at Pulicat. Casuarina planting is in progress. The hamlet of Coromandel (Dutch and English corruption of Kareimanal = sand coast) is thought to have given its name to the eastern coast of the Presidency. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 45 men. Land revenue, £20,837. The high road from Madras to Calcutta traverses the *taluk*.

Ponneri.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of Ponneri *táluk;* situated on the right or south bank of the Naránavaram (known more commonly as the Árániyánadí), about

20 miles north-west of Madras city. Population (1872) 1170; (1881) 779, dwelling in 120 houses. Sub-jail; post-office.

Poodoocottah.—State and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* PUDUKOTTAI.

Poo-loo.—Creek in Bassein District, Lower Burma.—*See* PU-LU.

Poona (*Púna*).—British District in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency, lying between 17° 54′ and 19° 23′ N. lat., and between 73° 24′ and 75° 13′ E. long. Area, 5348 square miles. Population (1881) 900,621. Poona District is bounded on the north by the District of Ahmadnagar; on the east by Ahmadnagar and Sholápur; on the south by the Nira river, separating it from Sátára and the estate of the chief of Phaltán; and on the west by Kolába and Thána. Two isolated blocks of Bhor State, one in the west and the other in the south, are included within the limits of Poona District. The administrative head-quarters are at POONA city.

Physical Aspects.—Towards the west, the country is undulating, and intersected by numerous spurs of the Sahyádri range, which break off in a south-easterly direction, becoming lower as they pass eastwards, and in the end sinking to the general level of the plain. On the extreme western border, the land is so rugged and cut up by valleys and ravines, that on the slopes and sides of the hills a system of spade tillage takes the place of ordinary cultivation by bullocks and ploughs. Along the western border of the District, the Sahyádri hills form a barrier inaccessible except by a few difficult passes or *gháts.* Of these, the Borghát, traversed both by a road and a railway, is the only line fitted for wheeled vehicles. The spurs which form the main line of the Sahyádri mountains have the flat tops and steep sides common to basaltic hills. Within the limits of the District not a few of the hills have had their sides hewn into rock temples, or their summits crowned with fortresses. Many streams rise in the Sahyádri range, and flow eastwards, until they join the Bhímá river, which passes through the District from north-west to south-east. The water of the rivers is good for all purposes, and all of them are sources of supply to the many villages along their banks. About 10 miles south-west of Poona city, the Khadakwásla lake, with an area of 5½ square miles, supplies water to Poona and Kirki. The District is not rich in minerals, but trap rock fit for road-making and stone for building purposes are found. There are no tracts producing large timber of any value. Of late years, efforts to afforest the denuded hill-sides have met with some success. Except in the west, where tigers, leopards, bears, and *sámbhar* deer are sometimes to be found, the District contains no wild animals larger than the antelope, boar, and wolf.

History.—The District of Poona, with the adjacent tracts of SATARA and SHOLAPUR,—the home of the Maráthás, and the birthplace of

the dynasty,—stretches for about 150 miles along the Sahyádri range between the 17th and 19th degrees of latitude, and extends at one point as far as 160 miles inland. The great Maráthá capitals — Poona, Sátára, Kolhápur—lie close to the mountains under the shelter of some hill fort; while the Musalmán capitals—Ahmadnagar, Bijápur, Bidar, Gúlbarga—are walled cities out in the plains. The history of the three Districts forms the subject of a monograph by Mr. W. W. Loch of the Bombay Civil Service, from which the following section has been condensed. The three Districts can be best historically considered together, and they are so treated here; but the reader is also referred for topographical details to the articles on SATARA and SHOLAPUR. The rise and progress of the Maráthá power, on the other hand, forms an important and essential part of the general history of INDIA, and will be only very briefly noticed in this place.

Of little consequence under the early Musalmán rulers of the Deccan; growing into importance under the kings of Bijápur and Ahmadnagar; rising with the rise of the State founded by Sivají the Great in the 17th century, — these Districts of Poona, Sátára, and Sholápur became in the 18th century the seat of an empire reaching from the Punjab to the confines of Bengal, and from Delhi to Mysore.

Early in the Christian era, Maháráshtra is said to have been ruled by the great Saleváhana, whose capital was at Paitan on the Godávari. At a later period, a powerful dynasty of Chálukya Rájputs reigned over a large part of Maháráshtra and the Karnátik, with their capital at Kalliáni, not far from Sholápur. The founder of the line, Jáisingh, had overthrown another Rájput tribe, the Pállavas. The Chálukyas rose to their greatest power under Tálapa Deva in the 10th century, and became extinct about the end of the 12th century, when the Yádava Rájás of Deogiri (Daulatábád) became supreme. This was the dynasty which was ruling at the time of the Musalmán invasion. We find, besides, that there was a Rájá at Punálla, near Kolhápur, at the end of the 12th century, whose power extended as far north as the Nira river. He was conquered by Singhan, the Rájput Rájá of Deogiri, whose camp is shown at Mhasurna, near Pusesauli, in Sátára District.

The first Musalmán invasion took place in 1294, but the Yádava dynasty was not finally extinguished until 1312. The conquest of the country was long imperfect; and Ferishta records an attack made by Muhammad Tughlak, the Emperor of Delhi, in 1340, on Nágnák, a Kolí chief, who held the strong fort of Kondhána (now Singarh), which was only reduced after eight months' siege.

The Deccan remained subject to the Emperor of Delhi till 1345, when the Musalmán nobles revolted from Muhammad Tughlak, and established the Bahmaní dynasty, whose first capital was at Gúlbarga,

about 60 miles east of Sholápur. The open country acknowledged the power of the Bahmaní sovereigns without a struggle. In the year 1426 the capital was changed by Ahmad Sháh Báhmani to Bidar, said by Ferishta to have been an old Hindu capital, about 100 miles farther east.

A terrible famine, known as the Durgádevi, is said to have lasted throughout Maháráshtra for twelve years—from 1396 to 1408. Taking advantage of the general depopulation, the local Maráthá chiefs obtained possession of the hills and strong places, which had been conquered by the Musalmáns. Several expeditions were sent by the Bahmaní kings to recover the Ghát country, but without success, until, in the year 1472, Mahmúd Gáwán, the great minister of the last independent Bahmaní king, made another effort; he forced his way through the forests, and did not leave the country till he had reduced the lesser forts, and finally Kelna itself.

Subsequently he made a new distribution of the Bahmaní dominions. Junnar became the head-quarters of a Province which comprehended Indápur, the Mándesh, Wái, Belgáum, and parts of the Konkán. The other districts on the Bhímá were under Bijápur, while Sholápur, Gúlbarga, and Purenda formed a separate Province. Yusaf Adíl Sháh, the founder of the Bijápur dynasty, was made governor of Bijápur; Ahmad Sháh, the founder of the Ahmadnagar dynasty, was sent to Junnar; Gúlbarga was entrusted to Dastúr Dinar, an Abyssinian; while Purandhar, Sholápur, and 11 districts were held by two brothers, Zein Khán and Khwája Jahán.

When Ahmad Sháh went to Junnar about the year 1485, he found that the fort of Junnar Shivner had fallen into the hands of the Maráthás, and he at once reduced it. He then took Cháwand, Logarh, Purandhar, Kondhána (Singarh), and many forts in the Konkán, and brought his charge into good order.

The fall of the Bahmaní dynasty was now at hand, for the great nobles had become virtually independent. The first who rose in revolt was Bahádur Geláni, who governed the country south of the Wárna river; he was soon defeated and killed. Then Zein-ud-dín, the *jágírdár* of Chákan, rebelled with the aid of Yusaf Adíl Sháh. Next, in the year 1489, Ahmad Sháh threw off his allegiance; he was attacked by Zein-ud-dín, but the latter was driven into the fort of Chákan; the fort was stormed, and Zein-ud-dín killed in the fight.

About this time, Yusaf Adíl Sháh of Bijápur also asserted his independence, and made himself master of the country as far north as the Bhímá. The new kings of the Deccan made a kind of partition treaty in 1491, by which the country north of the Nira and east of Karmála, together with some of the present District of Sholápur, was assigned to the Nizám Sháhí king, while the country south of the Nira and

Bhímá was allotted to Bijápur. The lesser chiefs, who had joined in the revolt against the Bahmaní kings, were gradually subdued by the more powerful. Dastúr Dinar, who held Gúlbarga, was defeated in 1495, and again in 1498, by Yusaf Adíl Sháh; but he returned after each defeat, and it was not till 1504 that he was slain, and Gúlbarga annexed to the Bijápur dominions.

In 1511, Sholápur was annexed to Bijápur. Amír Berid took Gúlbarga; but Kamál Khán was soon after assassinated, and Gúlbarga recovered. Purandhar and the neighbouring tracts remained for many years under Khwája Jahán, who seems to have been a semi-independent vassal of the king of Ahmadnagar.

In 1523, as a condition of peace between the kings of Bijápur and Ahmadnagar after one of their many wars, the sister of Ismáil Adíl Sháh was given in marriage to Burhán Nizám Sháh, and Sholápur was promised as her dowry, but it was not given up. The claim to Sholápur by the Nizám Sháhí kings was the cause of constant wars during the next forty years. At last the Musalmán kings, alarmed at the power of Rámráj, Hindu king of Bijánagar, formed a league against him (1563–64). In January 1565 was fought the great battle of Tálikot, which resulted in the death of Rámráj and the complete defeat of his army.

For some years there was peace; but in 1590, Diláwar Khán, who had been regent of Bijápur, fled to Ahmadnagar, and urged Burhán Nizám Sháh II. to recover Sholápur. In the year 1592 they advanced into the Bijápur territory, but Ibráhím Adíl Sháh managed to win back Diláwar Khán; and having got him into his power, sent him as a prisoner to the fort of Sátára, and quickly forced the Ahmadnagar troops to retire.

Soon after this, the Mughal princes of Delhi began to invade the Deccan, and in 1600 Ahmadnagar fell. The country was, however, only temporarily subdued, and was speedily recovered by Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian chief, who made Aurangábád, then called Kharki, the capital of the Nizám Sháhí kings. In 1616, Sháh Jahán again conquered the greater part of the Ahmadnagar territory; but in 1629, the country was given up by the Mughal governor, Khán Jahán Lodi. A war ensued, and in 1633 Daulatábád was taken, and the king made prisoner; but Sháhjí Bhonsla, one of the leading Maráthá chiefs, set up another member of the royal family, overran the Gangthari and Poona districts, and, with the help of the Bijápur troops, drove back the Mughals from Purenda. Sháh Jahán now marched into the Deccan in person, besieged Bijápur, and forced the king to come to terms, 1636. The country seized by Sháhjí was then easily recovered; that chief surrendered in 1637, and the Nizám Sháhí dynasty came to an end. The country north of the Bhímá, including Junnar, was

annexed to the Mughal territory, and that south of it was made over to Bijápur. Sháhjí took service under the king of Bijápur, and received the *jágír* of Poona and Supa, to which Indápur, Bárámati, and the Máwal country near Poona were added.

It was under the Bijápur kings that the Maráthás first began to make themselves conspicuous. The Bárgírs or light horse furnished by the Maráthá chiefs played a prominent part in the wars with the Mughals; the less important forts were left in their hands, and the revenue was collected by Hindu officers under the Musalmán *mokásdárs*. Several of the old Maráthá families received the offices of *deshmukh* and *sardeshmukh*. The kingdom of Bijápur survived that of Ahmadnagar by fifty years; but, weakened by internal dissensions, it was gradually falling to pieces. This was the opportunity for the predatory Maráthá chiefs; and a leader arose in Sivají, the son of Sháhjí Bhonsla, who knew how to unite the Maráthás into a nation by inspiring them with a hatred for their Musalmán masters, and how to take advantage of the constant quarrels and increasing weakness of those masters.

The story of the rise and progress of the great Maráthá power belongs to the general history of the country. It will be found in the article on INDIA, and need not be repeated here.

With the fall of Bájí Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, in 1818, the Maráthá power ended; and since then, no events of political importance have taken place in Poona District. Throughout the Mutiny, peace was maintained, and no open outbreak took place, though the mutiny of a regiment at Kolhápur gave rise to uneasiness, and there was undoubtedly a good deal of disaffection at Sátára among the classes whom the annexation of the country had impoverished. The notorious Náná Sáhib was the adopted son of Bájí Ráo.

Population. — The Census of 1872 showed a total population of 921,353 persons, on an area corresponding to that of the District as at present constituted. The next general Census of 1881, taken over an area of 5348 square miles, disclosed a total population of 900,621 inhabitants, residing in 8 towns and 1177 villages, and occupying 153,401 houses. This decrease of population, amounting to 2·25 per cent. in the nine years between 1872 and 1881, is ascribed to the famine of 1876–77, in which the eastern portion of the District suffered severely. Density of population, 168·4 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 38·3; persons per village, 624; persons per house, 5·87. Classified according to sex, there were 455,101 males and 445,520 females; proportion of males, 50·50 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 181,706, and girls 170,951; total children, 352,657, or 39·15 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 273,395, and females 274,569; total adults, 547,964, or 60·85 per cent. In point of

religion, Hindus number 834,843; Muhammadans, 42,036; Jains, 10,880; Pársís, 1574; Christians, 9503; Jews, 619; Sikhs, 30; non-Hindu aborigines, 1058; and Buddhists, 78. Hindus are sub-divided into castes as follows:—Bráhmans, 49,060; Rájputs, 3364; Kunbís (cultivators), 396,586; Kolís (cultivators), 42,829; Málís (gardeners), 52,543; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 2587; Darjis (tailors), 8857; Chamárs (skinners), 15,790; Lingayats (traders), 5364; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 9239; Sutárs (carpenters), 9534; Telís (oil-men), 8694; and depressed castes, like the Mángs and Mahárs. The Mángs and Mahárs together are returned at 88,019. Muhammadans are distributed according to tribe as follows:—Patháns, 5912; Sayyids, 4226; Shaikhs, 30,498; and 'others,' 1400. As regards sects of Muhammadans, there are 41,253 Sunnís and 783 Shiás. Christians are divided into 5039 Roman Catholics, 3426 Episcopalians, 560 Presbyterians, 91 Methodists, 92 Baptists, 6 Plymouth Brethren, and 289 belonging to miscellaneous Christian creeds. Among the aborigines, the Bhíls are returned at 376, probably a large under-estimate; Kathodís and Warlís, 682.

The Census of 1881 divides the male population into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 27,234; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 8585; (3) commercial class including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 8348; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 174,341; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 49.388; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 187,205.

Of the 1185 towns and villages in Poona District in 1881, 255 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 438 from two to five hundred; 300 from five hundred to one thousand; 135 from one to two thousand; 24 from two to three thousand; 22 from three to five thousand; 8 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from twenty to fifty thousand; and 1 over fifty thousand. The following towns, including Poona and Kirki cantonments as separate places, are the most important in the District:—POONA (99,622); POONA CANTONMENT (30,129); JUNNAR (10,373); KIRKI, cantonment (7252); SASWAD (5684); BARAMATI (5272); TALEGAON (4900); and LONAULI (3334). Excepting the cantonments, all these have municipalities, the aggregate municipal revenue (including minor municipalities, 6 in number) in 1882–83 being £32,671; the aggregate municipal population, 179,739; and the incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 11⅜d. per head of the population within municipal limits. The incidence varied in different municipalities from 2⅝d. to 5s. 10½d.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports (according to the Census Returns of 1881) 511,943 persons, or 56·8 per cent. of the entire population.

The agricultural workers were returned at 291,798, giving an average of 8·9 cultivable and cultivated acres to each. Kunbís and Málís are the chief cultivating classes, although men of all castes own land. About four-fifths of the landholders till with their own hands. The rest let the land to tenants, and add to their incomes by the practice of some craft or calling. Kunbís depend almost entirely on the produce of their fields. They work more steadily, and have greater bodily strength than other husbandmen, and show high skill in their occupation. The uncertain rainfall over a great part of the District, the poverty of much of the soil, the want of variety in the crops, and a carelessness in their dealings with money-lenders, have, since the beginning of British rule, combined to keep the bulk of the Poona landholders poor and in debt. Between 1863 and 1868 they suffered from the introduction of enhanced rates of assessment, based on very high prices which were wrongly believed to have risen to a permanent level. To their loss from the fall in prices was added the suffering and ruin of the 1876–77 famine. In spite of these recent causes of depression, the records of former years seem to show that, except during the ten years of unusual prosperity ending about 1870, when great public works and the very high price of cotton and other field produce threw much wealth into the District, the mass of the landholding classes, though poor and largely in debt, are probably at present less harassed, and better fed, better clothed, and better housed than they have been at any time since the beginning of the present century.

For the relief of landholders, who, though hampered by debt, were not insolvent, it was proposed to establish a system of State Agricultural Banks, in order to enable embarrassed proprietors to effect a compromise with their creditors. The scheme is at present in abeyance, owing to doubts on the part of Government as to the wisdom of enforcing the recovery of loans made by the bank by the same procedure as arrears of land revenue.

Of the total District area of 5348 square miles, 3560 square miles were in 1881 assessed for Government revenue, of which 3261 square miles were under cultivation and 299 square miles were cultivable. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £125,954, or an average of 1s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. The holdings as a rule are small, though large holdings are found in many villages. They are also divided among members of different families. In the hilly tract in the west of the District, where the chief grains are rice, *ragí*, and other coarse grains, which require great attention and labour, the holdings are generally smaller than in the east. In 1882–83, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 227,871, with an average area of about 9 acres.

In Poona all arable land comes under one or other of three great heads

—dry-crop land, watered land, rice land. The *kharíf* or early crops are brought to maturity by the rains of the south-west monsoon; the *rabí* or spring crops depend on dews, on irrigation, and on the partial fair-weather showers which occasionally fall between November and March. The chief *kharíf* crops are spiked millet mixed with the hardy *túr* (Cajanus indicus), and *joár*. These are sown late in May or in June, and are reaped in September and October or November. In the wet and hilly west the chief harvest is the *kharíf*. The *rabí* crops are sown in October and November, and ripen in February and March. They are chiefly the cold-weather Indian millets, together with gram, lentils, and pulses.

As in other parts of the Deccan, the chief kinds of soil are black, red, and *barad* or stony. The black soil, found generally near rivers, is by far the richest of these. The red soil is almost always shallow and coarser than the black. The stony soil is found on the slopes of hills. It is merely trap rock in the first stage of disintegration; but if favoured by plentiful and frequent rains, it repays the scanty labour which its tillage requires. With four oxen, a Kunbí will till some sixty acres of light soil. Sixty acres of shallowish black soil require six or eight oxen. Eight oxen can till fifty acres of deep black soil. Many husbandmen possess less than the proper number of cattle, and have to join with their neighbours for ploughing.

Of 1,924,630 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 1,775,583 acres were taken up for cultivation in 1882–83. Of these, 181,395 acres were fallow land or occupied waste. Of the remaining 1,594,188 acres under actual cultivation (28,035 acres of which were twice cropped), grain crops (wheat, barley, and rice, but mostly millets) occupied 1,383,092 acres, or 85 per cent.; pulses (gram, peas, and others), 103,030, or 6 per cent.; oil-seeds, 91,428; fibres, 24,467; tobacco, 1402; spices, 7356; garden produce, 7194; and sugar-cane, 4234. The area under cotton in 1882–83 produced 6874 cwts.

The farm stock decreased considerably in the famine of 1876–77, and has not yet reached its former level. In 1875–76, the year before the famine, the stock included—carts, 21,857; ploughs, 63,629; bullocks, 233,759; cows, 160,097; buffaloes, 57,872; horses, 12,790 (including mares and foals); asses, 4932; and sheep and goats, 342,081. According to the 1882–83 returns, the farm stock was—carts, 21,044; ploughs, 52,630; bullocks, 227,619; cows, 144,949; buffaloes, 52,730; horses (including mares and foals), 11,163; asses, 6745; and sheep and goats, 289,688.

Among special crops, the grape-vine (Vitis vinifera) is occasionally grown in the best garden land on the border of the western belt and in the neighbourhood of Poona city. The vine is grown from cuttings which are ready for planting in six or eight months. It

begins to bear in the third year, and is in full fruit in the sixth or seventh. With care, a vine goes on bearing for 60, or even, it is said, for 100 years. The vine is trained on a stout upright, often a growing stump which is pruned to a pollard-like shape about five feet high; this mode is said to be most remunerative. Or a strong open trellis roof is thrown over the vineyard about six feet from the ground, and the vines are trained horizontally on it; this mode is preferred by the rich for its appearance and shade, and is said to encourage growth to a greater age. The vine yields sweet grapes in January to March, and sour grapes in August. The sour grapes are very abundant, but are not encouraged; the sweet grape is tended in every possible way, but is apt to suffer from disease. After each crop the vine is pruned, and salt, sheep's droppings, and dried fish are applied as manure to each vine after the sour crop is over. Vines are flooded once a year for five or six days, the earth being previously loosened round the roots. Blight attacks them when the buds first appear, and is removed by shaking the branches over a cloth, into which the blight falls, and is then carried to a distance and destroyed. This operation is performed three times a day until the buds are an inch long.

Rates of interest vary from 9 to 36 per cent. Labourers earn 4½d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1882–83 were as follows per 80 lbs.:—Wheat, 6s. 2½d.; barley, 6s. 5¾d.; rice, from 6s. 8¼d. to 7s. 6d.; *joár*, 3s. 3d.; gram, 5s. 0¾d.; salt, 6s. 3d.; flour, 8s. 3¼d.; *ghí*, £3, 4s.; firewood, 1s. 2d. Timber (mostly teak) cost 5s. 1½d. per cubic foot; jungle-wood, 3s. 1½d. per cubic foot. Carts can be hired at 1s. 9d. per day, and camels at 1s.

Natural Calamities.—With much of its rainfall cut off by the western hills, large tracts in the east of the District have a very uncertain water-supply. In the year 1792–93, no rain fell till October, and the price of grain rose to 4 lbs. for the rupee (2s.). In 1802, owing to the devastation of the country by the Maráthá troops, the price of grain is said to have risen to 1 lb. for the rupee. In 1824–25 and 1845–46, the failure of rain caused great scarcity. In 1866–67, more than £8000 of land revenue was remitted, and £2000 spent in relief to the destitute. Poona was one of the Districts specially affected by the famine of 1876–77.

Communications.—Besides about 500 miles of partly bridged and partly metalled roads, 106 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway cross the District from west to east. The route from Poona to Mahábleshwar passes by Kartrije tunnel, Kaparoli, Khandala, Sherol, Wai, and Panchganj, the journey occupying from 10 to 12 hours. A railway is now (1885) in course of construction which will place Poona in connection with the South Maráthá region.

Trade and Commerce.—The general trade of the District is small.

The chief manufactures are silk robes, coarse cotton cloth, and blankets. The brass and silver work of Poona is much admired; among the other specialities may be mentioned toys, small clay figures carefully dressed, and ornaments, baskets, fans, etc., of *khas-khas* grass, decked with beetles' wings. The manufacture of paper, formerly of some importance, has of late years nearly ceased.

Administration.—For purposes of administration, the District is apportioned into 8 Sub-divisions, as follows:—KIRKI, in which is included Poona city and Haveli; JUNNAR, KHED, SIRUR, PURANDHAR, MAWAL, INDAPUR, and BHIMTHADI. The revenue in 1882–83, under all heads—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to a total of £180,735, showing, on a population of 900,621, an incidence per head of 4s. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £115,503, or 63·9 per cent. The other principal items are stamps (£18,263) and excise (£32,352). The local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded a total sum of £10,150. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom 3 are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes there are in all 11 courts. Twenty-eight officers share the administration of criminal justice. The average distance of a village from the nearest court is 53 miles. The total strength of the regular police in 1876–77 was 1094 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 829 of the population. The total cost of this force was £16,670, equal to £3, 5s. 3d. per square mile of area and 4¼d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 2746, being 1 to every 330 of the population. The corresponding statistics for 1882–83 are as follows:—Total strength of police, 1146 men, giving 1 to every 785 of population; total cost, £18,962, or £3, 10s. 10d. per square mile of area and 5d. per head of population; number of persons convicted, 2650, or 1 to every 347 of population. There is one jail in the District; average daily number of prisoners, 353.

Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 94 schools, with a total of 4206 pupils. In 1876–77 there were 251 schools, with 12,926 pupils, or, on an average, 1 school to every 4 villages. In 1882–83 there were 330 schools, with an average attendance of 18,235 pupils. Of these, 266 are Government schools; namely, 2 high schools, 6 Anglo-vernacular schools, 256 vernacular schools, and 2 training schools in medicine, forestry, and agriculture. There are also 2 colleges in the District—the Deccan College and the College of Science. The Census of 1881 returned 17,863 males and 1095 females as under instruction, besides 37,362 males and 1798 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. There are 3 libraries, and 8 vernacular newspapers were published in 1882.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is dry and invigorating, and suits European constitutions better than that of most other parts of the Bombay Presidency. The average annual rainfall during the twenty-six years ending 1881 was 29·4 inches. In 1881 the rainfall was only 17 inches. The average annual mean temperature of Poona for the seven years ending 1881 was 77·6° F., the average monthly mean being—January, 72°; February, 76°; March, 82·9°; April, 85·7°; May, 84·6°; June, 79·2°; July, 75·5°; August, 74·9°; September, 75·3°; October, 77·8°; November, 75·5°; and December, 72·1° F. The prevailing diseases are fever and affections of the eyes, skin, and bowels. Twelve dispensaries afforded medical relief to 2415 in-door and 53,118 out-door patients in 1876–77, and 21,151 persons were vaccinated. In 1881 the number of dispensaries was the same (12); in-door patients, 2155; out-door, 76,759; persons vaccinated, 24,942. Vital statistics showed for 1882–83 a death-rate of 17·84 per thousand, and a birth-rate of 27·4 per thousand. [For further information regarding Poona District, see *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, compiled under the orders of the Government of Bombay, by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. xviii. in three parts (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1885). Also see *Historical Account oj the Poona, Sátára, and Sholápur Districts*, by Mr. W. W. Loch, C.S. (Bombay Government Central Press, 1877); the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Presidency from 1880 to 1884.]

Poona (*Púna*).—Town and cantonment in Poona District, Bombay Presidency. The military capital of the Deccan, and from July to November the seat of the Government of Bombay. A station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 119 miles south-east of Bombay. It is situated in lat. 18° 30′ 41″ N., and long. 73° 55′ 21″ E., 1850 feet above the level of the sea, and, in a straight line, about 63 miles distant from the coast. Area, including suburbs, about 4 square miles. Population (1872) 90,436; (1881) of city, 99,622; of cantonment, 30,129; total, 129,751, namely, males 66,923, and females 62,828. Hindus number 103,348; Muhammadans, 16,374; Christians, 6384; Jains, 1745; Pársís, 1329; and 'others,' 571. Municipal income (1882–83), £29,126; incidence of taxation, 3s. 7d. per head.

The city stands on the right bank of the Múta river. Much of the country round is barren and rocky, and to the east stretches an open plain. Not much high ground is seen to the north and west, but to the south extends a line of hills ending in the bold square rock of Singhgarh. Close at hand, on the north, the confluence of the streams of the Múta and Múla; through the heart of the town, the line of the Kharakwásla Canal; and on the south, the lake and temple-crowned peak of Párvati, are objects of interest. The aqueduct was built by an ancient Maráthá family. The waterworks owe their existence to the liberality of Sir

Jamsetjí Jíjibhai of Bombay, who contributed £17,500 to the entire cost (£20,000). Gardens on every side, and groves of acacia along the banks of the rivers, give much of the neighbourhood a green, well-clothed appearance. The city proper extends along the Múta for about 1½ mile inland, varying in height from 30 to 70 feet above the river. Its length is about 2 miles from east to west, and its breadth about 1¾ mile, the total area being about 2½ square miles. For police and other purposes, the area of the town is divided among 18 wards or *pets*. Under the Peshwás, it was divided into 7 quarters, named after the days of the week. The ruined palace of the Peshwás stands in the Shanwár quarter or Saturday ward. The palace was burned down in 1827, and all that now remains is the fortified wall. The chief streets run north and south. Though broad in parts, they are all more or less crooked, none of them offering an easy carriage-way from one end to the other. From east to west, the only thoroughfare is by lanes, narrow, short, and interrupted. One of these was set apart for the execution of criminals, who, in the time of the Peshwás, were here trampled to death by elephants. Of 12,271 houses in 1881, there were 716, or 5·8 per cent., of the better sort. Most of the houses are of more than one storey, their walls built of a framework of wood filled in with brick or mud, and with roofs of tile. A few residences of the old gentry are still maintained in good order, but the greater number are in disrepair. Within many of the blocks of buildings that line the streets are large courtyards, entered by a doorway, and crowded all round with the hovels of the poorer classes.

North of the town is the military cantonment, with a population of 30,129. Within cantonment limits, northwards to the Múta-Múla river, and for 2 miles along the road leading west to the cantonment of Kirki (Khadki), are the houses of the greater part of the European population. Here also is the large bungalow of the Western India Club. The first Residency was built where the present Judge's house now stands, at the Sangam or junction of the Múla and Múta rivers. The compound included the site of the present Science College and the English burial-ground close to the present Sangam Lodge. The Resident's quarters contained five houses, besides out-offices for guard and escort parties. The entire block was destroyed on 5th November 1817, immediately upon the departure of Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone to join the British forces drawn up for battle at Kirki. There have been 3 European cemeteries opened since the Maráthá possession of Poona—one near the old Residency, the second near the present Church of St. Paul, and the third the present East Street Cemetery. A new Residency was built near the present site of St. Paul's Church in 1819, and was

accidentally burnt down in 1863. The Sangam Bridge was first built on piles in 1829, at a cost of £9500. Sir John Malcolm opened it in 1830, with the name of the Wellesley Bridge, after the Duke of Wellington. It was rebuilt with stone in 1875, at a cost of £9000. Holkar's Bridge was built by Madhu Ráo Peshwá, and so named because in its vicinity Holkar was accustomed to pitch his tents.

The first mention of Poona in history seems to be in 1604, when it was granted by the Sultán of Ahmadnagar to Malojí, the grandfather of Sivají the Great. In 1637 the grant was confirmed by the Sultán to Sháhjí, father of Sivají. In 1663, during the operations conducted against Sivají by order of Aurangzeb, the imperial viceroy, Sháista Khán, took possession of the open town, from which, when surprised a few days afterwards by Sivají, he had great difficulty in making his escape. His son and most of his guard were cut to pieces, and he himself wounded. A powerful force, however, immediately reinstated the discomfited commander. In 1667, Aurangzeb restored Poona to Sivají; but under the sway of his successor, Sambájí, it was occupied by Khán Jahán, an officer of the Emperor. On the Peshwá obtaining supremacy in the Marathá confederacy, the chief seat of Government was removed from Satára to Poona. In 1763, Nizám Alí of Haidarábád sacked the town, and burned such parts of it as were not ransomed.

In the struggle between the successive Peshwás and their nominal subordinates, Sindhia and Holkar, Poona suffered many vicissitudes, until in 1802, by the provisions of the Treaty of Bassein, the Peshwá admitted a British subsidiary force to be stationed here.

The final defeat of the Peshwá Bájí Ráo, and the capture of Poona in 1818, were the results of three engagements. In the battle of Kirki (5th November 1817), the English forces were commanded by Colonel Burr, 800 being Europeans. Their loss was 80 killed and wounded, of whom 50 were sepoys. No European officer was killed. The Peshwá's forces were under Bapú Gokla, and consisted of 18,000 horse and 8000 foot; killed and wounded, 500. The battle of Yeroada (16th and 17th November 1817) occurred near where the present Fitzgerald Bridge now stands, the British guns on 'Picket Hill' commanding the position. The English troops were commanded by Brigadier-General Lionel Smith. The result was the flight of the Peshwá's army, and the immediate occupation of the city by the British. The third battle, that of Korigáum (1st January 1818), was the most general of the three engagements, and was fought 2 miles distant from Loní, on the right bank of the Bhíma, and 16 miles from Poona. The British force was commanded by Captain Stanton, not more than 500 strong, with 6 guns and 300 horse, marching to the support of Colonel Burr. When the British reached

Korigáum at 10 A.M., they found themselves in face of the main body of the Maráthá army, 20,000 strong. The village was at once occupied and until 9 P.M. was held against the Maráthás, the British troops meantime suffering from want of water. When day broke, the Maráthá army was observed moving off along the Poona road. After the deposition of the Peshwá Bájí Ráo (1818), the city became the head-quarters of a British District, as well as the principal cantonment in the Deccan.

With the heat of April and May tempered by a sea-breeze, a moderate rainfall, and strong cool winds, the climate is agreeable and healthy. In 1881 the rainfall at Poona was 17·23 inches, but the average for twenty-six years ending 1881 has been 29·41 inches. The mean temperature in 1881 was 77·4°; maximum, 107° (in May); minimum, 45° (in December). During the last thirty years, Poona has been steadily growing in size. In 1851 its population was returned at 73,209; by 1863 it was supposed to have risen to about 80,000; in 1872 it was found to have reached 90,436; and in 1881 it was returned at 99,622, exclusive of 30,129 in the cantonment; total, 129,751.

Though Poona is no longer so great a centre of trade and industry as under the Peshwás, there are still about 250 handlooms for the weaving of fabrics of silk and cotton; and articles of brass, copper, iron, and clay are made in the city. Throughout Western India, Poona workers have earned a reputation for the manufacture of silver and gold jewellery, combs, dice, and other small articles of ivory; of fans, baskets, and trays of *khas-khas* grass ornamented with peacocks' feathers and beetles' wings; and of small carefully dressed clay figures representing the natives of India.

As a civil station, Poona is the residence of the usual District officers, and also the head-quarters of the Survey, Revenue, and Police Commissioners of the Presidency. As a military station, it is the head-quarters of a General of Division, of the Quartermaster-General and Adjutant-General of the Bombay Army. The garrison generally consists of European and Native infantry, artillery, and cavalry. There is a branch of the Bank of Bombay. Besides a female normal school, a training college for preparing teachers for vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools, and several Government and private vernacular, Anglo-vernacular, and English schools, Poona has a Government first-grade High School, and two colleges—the Deccan College, teaching classics, mathematics, and philosophy; and the College of Science, with special training for civil engineers. The daily average number of pupils in the female normal school during 1881–82 was 31; in the training college for teachers, 145; and in the first-grade High School, 360. The average daily attend-

ance at the Deccan College was 83 in 1879–80, and 120 in 1881–82. The receipts from fees in the latter year were £720. The College of Science (with engineering, forest, agricultural, and mechanical classes) had a daily average attendance of 188 in 1880 and 173 in 1881; fee receipts (1881), £501. Other principal public buildings in Poona are the Legislative Council Hall, the Sassoon Hospital (with beds for 150 patients), Jewish Synagogue, military pay offices, barracks, etc. The total number of in-door patients treated at the Sassoon Hospital in 1883 was 2290; and of out-door patients, 11,809.

Poonamallee.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PUNAMALLU.

Poon-na-riep.—Village in Tharawadi District, Lower Burma.—*See* PON-NA-REIP.

Pooree.—District, Sub-division, and town in Orissa, Bengal.—*See* PURI.

Poo-zwon-doung.—River of Lower Burma.—*See* PU-ZUN-DAUNG.

Porakád (*Porca*).—Town in Alleppi Sub-division, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 21′ 30″ N., long. 76° 25′ 40″ E. Population (1871) 2922, dwelling in 743 houses; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Porakád was formerly a separate principality, known as Chambagacheri, and the principal port of the country; it passed to Cochin in 1678, and to Travancore in 1746. Both the Dutch and Portuguese had a settlement here, and the remains of the Portuguese fort still stand. The seaport has been ruined by the prosperity of ALLEPPI.

Porayar.—Suburb of Tranquebar port and town, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* TRANQUEBAR.

Porbandar.—Native State in the Soráth division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Situated in the west of the peninsula of Káthiáwár, consisting of a strip along the shore of the Arabian Sea, nowhere more than 24 miles broad, and lying between 21° 14′ and 21° 58′ N. lat., and 69° 28′ and 70° 1′ E. long. Area, 636 square miles, with 1 town and 84 villages. Population (1872) 72,077; (1881) 71,072. The Census authorities estimated the area at 567 square miles in 1881, but the area given above is a more recent return. Males numbered 36,566 in 1881, and females 34,506, dwelling in 14,936 occupied houses. Hindus numbered 63,406; Muhammadans, 6741; and 'others,' 925. The style of house-building is said to be peculiar. No mortar is used, but the limestone, of which the better class of houses is built, is accurately squared and fitted; and it is asserted that the quality of the limestone is such that when once the rain has fallen on a wall thus built, the joints coalesce and become as though all were one solid block. The Porbandar State may be described roughly as a

plain sloping from the Barda hills to the sea, drained by many rivers, of which the largest—the Bhádar, Sorti, Wartu, Minsár, and Ojat—contain water generally throughout the year. Near the sea the rain accumulates in large marshes called *gher* land. When salt-water has access to these marshes, nothing can be grown except grass and reeds; but in the sweet-water marshes, rice, gram, *dál*, and other crops are grown. The largest *gher* is the Modhoára, about six miles long by four miles broad, connected with the sea by the Kindari creek. This marsh receives all the drainage of the Bardás, though no large stream flows into it; when it becomes filled with water during the rainy season, the villagers dig away the sand with which the sea annually closes the mouth of the creek, the water flows into the sea, and the sea-water enters the marsh during very high tides. The Gangájal is a large fresh-water marsh situated not far from the Kindari creek, about two miles in circumference, but unless the rains are heavy does not hold water for more than eight months in the year. The climate is healthy. Minimum temperature (January), 54° F.; maximum (May), 99° F.: average rainfall, 20 inches. The country is nowhere far distant from the sea. The limestone known as Porbandar stone, found over almost the whole of the State, is chiefly quarried in the Barda hills. The best quarry is at Adatiána. The stone is largely exported to Bombay. Iron is also found, but is not smelted. The Málik hill is the only portion of the elevated country that is fairly wooded. Turtles of large size abound along the coast, but are not captured. Oysters are found, but do not produce pearls like those of the Gulf of Cutch. Silk of good quality and cotton cloth are manufactured.

Of recent years much of the trade has been absorbed by Bombay, but large quantities of timber are still imported from the Malabar ports. Cotton seed and tobacco are imported from Broach, embroideries from Surat, and raw sugar from Gandevi and Náosari in Surat. Grain is imported from Karáchi. All the exports go to Bombay. Heavy port dues, the competition of Veráwál and Bhaunagar, and insufficient communications, account for the decline of the State as a trading centre. Something is being done to remedy this decadence, and in 1881 a British superintendent of customs was appointed under local administration. The value of the trade in 1880 was £55,316; and in 1882-83, under British administration, £165,943. Port dues (under native administration), £1670; under British administration, £6168. The chief harbours are PORBANDAR, Mádhavpur, and Miáni.

The ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1881-82) chief, Ráná Srí Vikmátjí, is a Hindu of the Jethwa clan of Rájputs, and belongs to one of the oldest races in Western India. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and has power to try for capital

offences, without permission from the Political Agent, any person except British subjects. He administers the affairs of his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £40,000; and pays a tribute of £4850, 8s. jointly to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. He maintained a military force of 595 men in 1882–83. He has a mint, and coins silver pieces called *koris*, and copper coins called *dokrás*, of which 32 usually go to the *kori*; three of these *koris*, on an average, make a rupee (2s.). The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession, and hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. There are 10 schools in the State, with a total of 726 pupils in 1882–83. Porbandar ranked as a State of the first class in Káthiáwár until 1869; and since as a State of the third class. Transit dues are not levied in the State. A total sum of £2435 was spent in works of public utility during 1882. The land revenue is about £18,000.

Porbandar.—Chief town and port of Porbandar State; situated on the western coast of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, in lat. 21° 37′ 10″ N., and long. 69° 48′ 30″ E., on the shore of the Arabian Sea. Population (1881) 14,569, namely, 7120 males and 7449 females. Hindus number 10,568; Muhammadans, 3079; Jains, 887; Pársís, 34; and Christian, 1. Though a bar prevents the entrance of ships of any great size into the port, it is much frequented by craft of from 12 to 80 tons burthen. In spite of the levy of heavy customs dues, and the competition of other ports, the trade is considerable, including, besides a local traffic with the Konkán and Malabar coast, a brisk trade with the ports of Sind, Balúchistán, the Persian Gulf, Arabia, and the west coast of Africa. In 1881 the imports were valued at £48,572, and the exports at £33,586. Total value in 1882–83, £165,943. At a little cost, the port might be made one of the most secure on the Káthiáwár seaboard. The town is entirely built of stone and surrounded by a fort. It is said to have been called in ancient times Sudámápuri; and it has been the Jethwa capital for about 150 years. Post-office.

Port Blair.—Principal harbour of the ANDAMAN ISLANDS.—*See* ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

Port Canning (or *Matlá*).—Decayed town and port in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 19′ 15″ N., and long. 88° 43′ 20″ E. It occupies a tongue of land round which sweep the collected waters of the Bidyádharí, Karatoyá, and Athárabánká rivers, forming the MATLA estuary, which then takes a fairly straight course southward to the sea. Port Canning is now (1885), and has been for several years, abandoned as an attempted seat of maritime trade; but before entering into its history, it may be well to mention its capabilities when the present author visited it in 1869–70, in case it

should ever be resuscitated. The junction of the rivers formed a fine sheet of water, with 21 feet at dead low tide under the jetties which the Port Canning Company had constructed. Ships drawing 23 feet could discharge their cargo without grounding, as they would lie 6 feet from the jetty-side. Seven moorings were laid down, one off each jetty, the maximum length of the moorings being from 320 to 420 feet. Five jetties were formed on the Matlá river opposite Canning Strand, and two on the Bidyádharí off the rice-mills. These mills were, and still are, the most conspicuous feature in the landscape. There was also a desolate-looking hotel with a small railway station. This was all the town, with the exception of a few native huts and thatched bungalows. The rest was marsh land. The railway line did not reach to any of the moorings; but goods had to be landed at the ends of the jetties, then carried by coolies to railway waggons at the shore end of the jetties, and hand-shunted along a tramway to the railway station, where an engine was finally attached to them and took them off to Calcutta, 28 miles distant. The pilotage and port-dues on the Matlá were reported as practically one-half of those on the Húglí; the hire of Government moorings and boats, and harbour-master's charges, being about the same at both ports.

The following narrative of the attempt to form a seat of maritime trade at Port Canning is condensed from official papers furnished by the Bengal Government.

The first step towards creating a town and municipality on the Matlá appears to have been made in 1853, when, in consequence of the deterioration of the navigation of the Húglí, which it was feared at that time was rapidly closing, the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce addressed Government on the necessity of providing an auxiliary port on the Matlá, and opening communication with Calcutta by means of a railway or canal. Lord Dalhousie's Government, although not participating in these fears, took the precaution of acquiring the land on the proposed site of the new port, afterwards named Port Canning; and in July 1853, lot No. 54 of the Sundarban Grants was purchased for the sum of £1100 from the grantee, the whole comprising upwards of 8000 acres, or 25,000 *bighás* of land, of which one-seventh was cultivated, the remainder being jungle. About the same time, the adjoining lot having lapsed to Government, a portion, consisting of 650 acres, was reserved for building. A committee was appointed to survey and report upon the site. Plans for laying out a town were submitted, and a position was fixed upon for the terminus of a railway to connect the new port with Calcutta.

In June 1862, the provisions of the Municipal Act were extended to the town; and in 1863, the whole of the Government proprietary right in the land was made over to the Municipality, in trust for the town

of Canning, subject to the control of Government. Rules were also passed empowering the Commissioners to grant leases and to borrow money on the security of the land, but the Government itself declined to advance any loan.

The expenditure necessary for the various works was estimated at upwards of £200,000; and the Municipality, in November 1863, with the sanction of Government, opened a loan of £100,000 upon debentures, at 5½ per cent. interest, redeemable in five years. The privilege of commuting debentures for lands in freehold or leasehold at certain rates was also allowed. Not more than £26,500, however, was subscribed; and early in 1864 the Municipal Commissioners again applied to Government for a loan of £45,000, which was refused, except on the condition that the mercantile community should contribute the remainder of the £200,000 required.

The scheme of forming the Port Canning Company dates from a proposal made in 1864 by Mr. Ferdinand Schiller, one of the Municipal Commissioners, to raise the means of undertaking the works essential to the development of the port, consequent on the refusal of Government to advance the funds except on terms which the Municipality found impossible of fulfilment. Mr. Schiller's proposals were to advance the sum of £25,000 to the Municipality, on condition of receiving from them certain concessions, namely—(1) the gift in freehold of 100 acres of land in the centre of the town; and (2) the exclusive right of constructing tramways, wharves, jetties, and landing accommodation, and of levying rates upon the same for fifty years, subject to the control and regulation of the Commissioners. Mr. Schiller also undertook on the part of himself and his assignees—(1) to excavate within two years a dock, 2500 feet in length by 200 feet in width and 10 feet in depth, on the assigned land; (2) to provide for the conservation and protection of the river bank along the entire length of the Commissioners' property facing the Matlá; (3) to pay the Commissioners one-third of all profits from these works exceeding 10 per cent. The right of purchasing the completed works at original cost at the expiration of fifty years was reserved to the Municipality; and in the event of non-purchase, an extension of the term for another twenty-five years was stipulated. These terms were agreed to by Government, and the payment of the loan of £25,000 to the Municipality was made in March 1865.

In March 1866, the Government of India consented to a loan of £45,000 on security of the property of the Municipality, without interest, repayable in five years, for which debentures were issued bearing dates from April 1866 to August 1868. Under the conditions of commutation mentioned above, debentures to the extent of £33,780 were converted for lands.

In the meantime, the prospectus of the Port Canning Company had been issued, in January 1865, accompanied by an announcement that the share list was closed. The shares rose in value at an unprecedented rate, till they attained a premium of £1200 in Bombay and £1000 in Calcutta. It was soon found, however, that the sanguine expectations of speculators were not likely to be realized, and the shares fell as rapidly as they had risen. Subsequently, dissensions arose between the directors and the shareholders, resulting in the management of the Company being transferred to other hands.

A dispute also took place between the Company and the Municipality. The former made an application to commute the £25,000 of municipal debentures which it held, into land. But the deeds were not executed, although the lots were assigned; and commutation was deferred till maturity of the debentures, and payment of a quit-rent, equivalent to the interest, was agreed on. In 1868, when affairs definitely assumed an unfavourable aspect, the Company endeavoured to repudiate the transaction, and brought an action against the Municipality for payment of £2700 interest on the debentures. The latter resisted the claim, on the ground that the Company had agreed to commute the debentures for certain lands in the town of Canning. The Company gained the suit in the first instance; but on appeal, the order was reversed, and the commutation was declared to be valid. The Company, however, have not entered into possession of their lands, and an appeal is said to have been preferred to the Privy Council in England. In 1870, the Secretary of the Company addressed Government, urging upon it the duty of redeeming the debentures which the Municipality had failed to meet. The Government, in reply, declined to admit any obligation, and refused to provide the Municipal Commissioners with funds to pay their debts. The first of the Government debenture bonds for £10,000 having arrived at maturity in April 1871, steps were taken to obtain a decree, and the whole of the municipal property, moveable and immoveable, was placed under attachment. Government having thus obtained priority, notice was sent to the private debenture-holders, inviting them to co-operate in obtaining a fair division of the assets. Subsequent decrees were also obtained to the extent of £35,000; and the whole of the Canning Municipal Estate was attached and made over to the Collector of the Twenty-four Parganás, who was appointed manager.

As regards the operations of the Company, it may be stated that, according to the prospectus, they possessed 134,590 acres of land yielding an estimated annual rent of £13,000. These lands consisted of the town belonging to the Municipality, and of Sundarban lots leased from Government or purchased from individuals, the greater

portion being redeemable in freehold. In 1866, the Company added to their business the lease of the forest rights in all the unappropriated lands of the Sundarbans, as well as the rights of fishery in all the rivers, which were put up to auction by Government for a term of five years, but liable at any time to resumption on six months' notice. The fishing rights were withdrawn in October 1868, in consequence of the claims of the Company being contested by fishermen and others holding prescriptive rights; and the question was finally decided, under legal advice, that the Government had not the right to farm out the fisheries in tidal waters to private persons. The lease of the forest rights was resumed after due notice, on the grounds that the monopoly was contrary to the interests of the general public, and that oppression was exercised by the Company's agents in the collection of the fees. An appeal was presented to the Government of India and the Secretary of State against the withdrawal of these leases, but the action of the Bengal Government was upheld.

The following are the principal works undertaken and executed, either partially or completely, by the Company, namely—(1) A wet dock, 3500 by 400 feet, for the accommodation of country boats, in accordance with the conditions in the deed of concession; (2) the protection from erosion of the Matlá foreshore; (3) seven landing wharves and iron jetties, each capable of accommodating two ships at a time; (4) goods sheds and tramways in connection with the jetties; (5) a 'gridiron' and graving dock for repairing vessels; (6) lastly, the rice-mills, constructed on an extensive scale, capable of husking and turning out about 90,000 tons of rice a year, from which very profitable results were expected. Many of these works have fallen into disrepair, and are now to a large extent unserviceable. The number of ships that visited the port since its opening in 1861–62 down to the close of 1870–71, was as follows:—1861–62, none; 1862–63, 1; 1863–64, 11; 1864–65, 14; 1865–66, 26; 1866–67, 20; 1867–68, 9; 1868–69, 1; 1869–70, 2; 1870–71, none. In March 1869, the Company applied to Government, urging the suspension for a time of the port-dues and charges. The request was complied with; and a Government notification was issued declaring Canning to be a free port, and providing that six months' notice should be given before the charges were reimposed. This notification, however, had no effect. The two vessels which arrived in 1869–70 were chartered by the Company for the purpose of bringing trade to the rice-mills, as well as to give effect to the notification. Since February 1870, no ocean-going ships have arrived at the port; and the arrivals of 1867–68 may be looked upon as the last response of the mercantile community to the endeavours made by the Company, and aided by the Government, to raise Canning to the position of a port auxiliary to Calcutta.

The last effort of the Company to develop the rice-mills having proved financially unsuccessful, and the only remaining source of revenue being derivable from their landed estates, it was resolved, at a meeting of shareholders in May 1870, to appoint a committee for the purpose of preparing a scheme of voluntary liquidation and reconstruction of the Company. The head office was removed to Bombay, and the local expenditure reduced; the working of the mills was stopped until such time as they could be leased out or worked profitably, and the operations of the Company confined to the improvement of the revenue from their landed estate. At a subsequent meeting of shareholders, held in August 1870, it was resolved to make further calls to pay off existing debts, and to transfer and sell, under certain conditions, the whole of the property and rights of the 'Port Canning Land Investment, Reclamation, and Dock Company,' to the new 'Port Canning Land Company, Limited.' These resolutions have since been carried out, the interest in the new Company being principally vested in the Bombay shareholders, who exercise the chief direction of affairs.

The Port Establishment has been a heavy and unprofitable charge to Government. In 1869–70, the cost of the port amounted to £15,709, while the receipts were only £1134, 14s. This was exclusive of the charges for special survey and arsenal stores. Considering the position and prospects of the Company, and the hopelessness of the establishment of any trade which would justify the retention of a port on the Matlá, the Lieutenant-Governor, in June 1871, recommended that the earliest opportunity should be taken of officially closing the port, and withdrawing the establishments, with the exception of the light vessel outside, which would be of use to ships from the eastward, and might occasionally guide a vessel to an anchorage in rough weather. These recommendations were adopted, and shortly afterwards the Government moorings, etc., were taken up, and the port officially declared closed. In 1870, the town contained 386 houses or huts, with a total population of 714 souls. At present it is nearly deserted. The Commissioner of the Sundarbans, in a report dated the 10th April 1873, states that, 'with the exception of the Agent and others employed by the new Port Canning Land Company, and a *dák munshí* or deputy postmaster, no one lives at Canning.'

The line of railway connecting Port Canning with Calcutta, 28 miles distant, proved a failure from the first. Upon the collapse of the Company, it was taken over by Government as a State line. It is still worked, but on a very economical scale; its traffic consists almost solely of firewood, bamboos, and fish from the Sundarbans.

Porto Novo (*Feringhipet* or *Parangípetai; Mahmúd Bandar*).—Seaport town and railway station in South Arcot District, Madras Presi-

dency; situated in lat. 11° 29′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 48′ 13″ E., 145 miles south of Madras, and 32 miles south of Pondicherri, at the mouth of the river Vellár. Population (1881) 7823. Hindus number 4401; Muhammadans, 3350; and Christians, 72. Considerable trade with Ceylon and Achín. The port is frequented exclusively by native craft, of which, in 1875, 248 (tonnage 16,700) called. Value of exports in the same year, £56,000; of imports, £9500. In 1881–82, the number of native craft arriving was 97 (tonnage 8812); the number leaving was 105 (tonnage 9022). Value of exports in 1881–82, £14,750; of imports, £5010. In the previous year, 1880–81, the value of the imports was £4244; and value of exports, £23,198.

When the English commenced trading here in 1682, they found the Danes and Portuguese already established. In 1749, the Madras army, marching against Tanjore, halted at Porto Novo for a while; in 1780, Haidar Alí plundered the town. In 1781, Sir Eyre Coote marched out of Porto Novo with 8000 men to meet the whole army of Mysore, some 60,000 strong, under Haidar; and in the battle which ensued, won the most signal victory of the war, and practically saved the Presidency.

Porto Novo is interesting also as the scene of English joint-stock enterprise. From 1824, and for many years afterwards, efforts had been made to establish ironworks here. A company called the Porto Novo Iron Company established a large factory; but, after many years of patient endeavour, the enterprise had to be abandoned. To facilitate the carriage of the iron-ores, which were brought by water from Salem, the old Khán Sáhib's canal was made navigable in 1854 by the construction of 3 locks,—one where the canal debouches into the Vellár, nearly opposite the town of Porto Novo; the second where it leaves the Víranam tank; and the third a little lower down. The Iron Company cut a short canal of their own from the Vellár into the backwater adjoining the embouchure of the Coleroon, down which they used to float their ore in basket boats to Porto Novo before the Khán Sáhib's canal was rendered navigable. The Company's canal, which is only about 2 miles long, is now much silted up. The excavation of the East Coast Canal at Porto Novo was commenced in 1853, and considerable progress was made up to 1857, when the Mutiny seems to have put a stop to it, as it did to many other public works. A small expenditure would probably render the canal navigable for boats from the Vellár to the Paravanar, and so to Cuddalore; but the construction of the railway has rendered such expenditure hardly necessary. The only special manufacture of Porto Novo is a species of mat, made from the leaves of the wild pine-apple, in imitation of similar mats of an exceedingly soft and elegant make imported from Achín.

Portuguese Possessions.—The Portuguese Possessions in India

consist of GOA, DAMAN, and DIU, each of which *see* separately. Total area, 2365 square miles; total population (1881), 475,172.

Potanúr.—Railway station in Coimbatore District on the south-west branch of the Madras Presidency; 302 miles from Madras.

Potegáon. — *Zamíndárí* or petty chiefship in Chándá District, Central Provinces; 16 miles east-north-east of Chámursí. Area, 34 square miles; comprising 15 villages, in a hilly country, which yields much *sáj*, *bíjesál*, and ebony. Population (1881) 793. Potegáon village is situated in lat. 20° N., long. 80° 11′ E.; population (1881) 301.

Potikall. — *Zamíndárí* or chiefship in Bastar State, Central Provinces; comprising 22 villages. Area, 350 square miles. Population (1881) 2013, almost entirely Kols, although the *zamíndár* is a Telinga; number of houses, 450. Potikall, the chief village, containing about 100 houses, is situated on the river Tál, in lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 80° 56′ E.

Poung-day.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* PAUNG-DEH.

Poung-loung. — Range of hills in Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* PAUNG-LAUNG.

Pownár. — Village in Wardhá District, Central Provinces.—*See* PAUNAR.

Prakásha. — Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 74° 28′ E., 45 miles north-west of Dhuliá, and 7 miles south-west of Sháháda; at the junction of the Tápti river with two of its tributaries. Population (1881) 5651, namely, Hindus, 3645; Muhammadans, 479; Christians, 18; and 'others,' 1509. Municipal revenue (1883-84), £156; incidence of tax, 8½d. per head. East of the town stands an old temple of Gautameswar Mahádeo, in whose honour a great Hindu fair is held every twelve years, when the planet *Guru* or Jupiter enters the constellation of the Lion, or *Singhast*. There are several other interesting temples in the neighbourhood. Post-office; school with 138 pupils in 1883-84; dispensary.

Pránhíta.—The name of the united streams of the Wardhá and Waingangá rivers down to their junction with the Godávari at Síroncha, in Chándá District, Central Provinces; length about 70 miles. Forty miles above Síroncha, occurs the 'third barrier,' a formidable obstruction to navigation. The Pránhíta has a broad bed, which in the rainy season is filled with a rushing flood, but in the dry weather consists of a broad expanse of sand, with a thin and shallow stream.

Pratápgarh.—District, *tahsíl*, *parganá*, and town in Oudh.—*See* PARTABGARH.

Pratápgarh.—State in Rájputána.—*See* PARTABGARH.

Pratápgarh.—*Zamíndárí* estate in the north-west of Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces, near Motúr; comprising an area of 289 square miles, with 140 villages, and 3203 houses. Population (1881) 17,078, namely, males 8727, and females 8351. Together with Sonpur, Pratápgarh once formed part of the Harái chiefship; but at the beginning of this century it was separated, and came under the management of the Harái chief's brother. The present (1884) chief is a minor, and the estate (which contains a fine *sál* forest) is under Government management. Principal village and residence of the chief, Pagárá, population (1881) 342.

Pratápgiri (or *Chinna Kimedi*).—*Zamíndárí* in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KIMEDI.

Pratápnagar. — Chief village of Jámirá Fiscal Division in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 23′ 5″ N., and long. 89° 15′ 15″ E., on the bank of the Kholpetúa river. Contains a large rice mart; in 1857 the seat of the principal revenue court of the local landholder.

Prattipádu. — Village in Guntúr *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 12′ N., long. 80° 24′ E. Population (1871) 7315, inhabiting 2051 houses; and (1881) 3181, inhabiting 582 houses. Hindus number 2722; Muhammadans, 273; and Christians, 186. The village is 10 miles distant from Guntúr. Temples. Post-office.

Premtoli.—Village in Rájsháhi District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 24′ 30″ N., long. 88° 25′ 15″ E. An annual religious trading fair is held here on the 20th day of the moon of Aswín, to celebrate the anniversary of the visit of the reformer-saint Chaitanya to Gaur, the former capital of Lower Bengal.

Proddatúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 487 square miles. Population (1881) 90,653, namely, 45,732 males and 44,921 females, dwelling in 1 town and 91 villages, containing 19,166 houses. Hindus number 78,554; Muhammadans, 10,184; Christians, 1912; and 'others,' 3. The principal soil is the black cotton soil, and cotton is the chief product. In the valleys of the Penner and the Kúnder, 'dry' grains and rice are raised by means of irrigation. Indigo is also grown. The Kurnúl-Cuddapah irrigation and navigation canal traverses the *táluk*. The timber on the high slopes of the hills is valuable; in 1883–84, 28½ square miles were 'reserved.' In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles, 6; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 64 men. Land revenue, £21,113.

Proddatúr (*Poddatúru*).—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 45′ N., long. 78° 35′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 6709, inhabiting 1334 houses; and (1881) 6510, inhabiting 1440 houses. Hindus number 4828; Muhammadans, 1667; and

Christians, 15. The head-quarters of Proddatúr *táluk*. Some trade is carried on, the chief staple being indigo. Dispensary; *munsif's* court; post-office.

Prome (Burmese *Pyé*).—District in Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Stretches across the valley of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) between lat. 18° 22′ and 19° 50′ N., and between long. 94° 44′ and 95° 58′ E.; bounded on the north by Thayet-myo; on the east by the Pegu Yoma range; on the south by Henzada and Tharawadi; and on the west by the Arakan Hills. Area, 2887 square miles. Population (1881) 322,342. The District of Prome originally extended northwards as far as the frontier of Upper Burma; but in April 1870, Thayet-myo was erected into a separate jurisdiction. The head-quarters of the District are at PROME TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The Irawadi flows through the District from north to south, dividing it into two portions, which differ considerably in area, appearance, and fertility. On the west, the country is broken by thickly wooded spurs from the Arakan mountains into small valleys drained by short and unimportant tributaries of the Irawadi, and but little under cultivation. North and north-east of Prome town, the forest-covered spurs of the Pegu Yomas also form numerous valleys and ravines, stretching as far as the Irawadi, and watered by torrents which, as they proceed south-west towards more level country, eventually unite into one large stream called the NA-WIN. The south and south-western portions of the District consist of a large and well-cultivated plain, intersected by low ranges with a general north and south direction, the chief of which is called the Prome Hills. Towards the east and south-east, this fertile tract is drained by streams, which, walled back from the Irawadi by the Prome Hills, send their waters to the Myit-ma-ka, the head of the Hlaing river, and thus seawards in a line parallel to that of the great river.

There are several roads running across the Pegu Yoma range, but none are practicable for wheeled traffic. Footpaths lead from the sources of the North and South Na-win to the Myauk-mwe and Pa-laung streams respectively; and farther south, there is a track from near the source of the Shwe-leh river to the Karen hamlets on the Za-ma-yi, the head-waters of the Pegu river. A road over the Arakan mountains connects Pa-daung *viâ* Nyaung-kye-dauk with Taung-gúp in Sandoway. It was by this route that the main body of the Burmese army advanced in 1784 from Prome to the final conquest of the kingdom of Arakan. In 1826, however, it was reported as altogether impassable for troops or laden cattle. The chief rivers of Prome District are—the Tha-ní, which rises in the extreme north-west angle and flows east-south-east for 25 miles, joining the Irawadi at Pe-gyí; the Bú-ro, rising in the Arakan mountains, and after a south-easterly course of 35 miles,

falling into the Tha-ní near Nyaung-bin-tha; the Kyauk-bú, another tributary of the Tha-ní; the Tha-le-dan streams, which rise in the Arakan range and unite near Ma-taung, 17 miles from the village of Tha-le-dan, where their combined waters reach the Irawadi.

The hill country east of the Irawadi and north-east of Prome town is drained by the NA-WIN system of rivers, of which the most important are the South Na-win, falling into the Irawadi at Prome, and its affluents the North Na-win, the Chaung-sauk (Khyoung-tsouk), and the Tin-gyi, all of which take their rise in the Pegu Yomas, and eventually join the Irawadi. Though all these rivers are to a certain extent navigable by boats, yet they are at present mainly important as the routes by which the valuable timber of the hill country is floated down the Irawadi to be lashed into rafts at the mouth of the Na-win. The plains in the south of Prome are watered by a series of streams forming the Myit-ma-ka system. The chief of these are—the Zeh, which flows into the In-ma (Eng-ma) swamp; the Shwe-leh; the Kyat, rising in Tharawadi District, where it is known as the Taung-nyo; and the Myit-ma-ka or upper portion of the HLAING RIVER.

The District contains two lakes—the In-ma and the Shwe-daung Myo-ma. The Di-dut swamp, on the east bank of the Irawadi, is a depression in the plains supplied by the annual overflow of the Irawadi; in the rains it is 7 feet deep, but dries up in the hot season.

The forest area of the teak localities on the west side of the Irawadi is estimated at 40 square miles, with about 200 first-class trees. Between the Pegu Yomas and the Irawadi are vast forests of *in*, *thit-ya* (Shorea robusta), *in-gyin* (Shorea siamensis), and *thit-tsi*. Teak occurs all over the hills, and the average annual yield since the three-year permit system was introduced in 1862 has been about 10,000 logs. The forests of the Province are now worked by the Pegu Circle officers of the Forest Department. The Shwe-leh forests, with an estimated area of 95 square miles, contain some of the most valuable teak in Pegu. Many other varieties of timber, such as *pyin-gado*, *pa-dauk*, *rin-daik*, *sha*, *kuk-ko*, abound. It has been calculated that as many as 2000 *pa-dauk* trees, 1100 *kuk-ko*, and 130,000 *sha* were felled annually until these trees were reserved. The Chaung-sauk teak plantation occupied an area of 561 acres in 1884. Receipts of the Forest Department in 1883-84, £7581; expenditure, £4502.

History.—Fact and fable are so interwoven in the early history of the once flourishing kingdom of Prome, that it is impossible to disentangle the true from the false. It is most probable that the area of distribution of Gautama Buddha's relics after his death in 543 B.C. marks the limits of his forty-five years' wanderings, yet all Burmese historians assert that he visited and preached in Burma. The Prome chronicles begin by relating the foundation of Prome in accordance with a prophecy of

Gautama, who, whilst looking towards the south-east from the site of Prome over a 'great ocean,' observed a piece of cow-dung floating with the current, and at the same time a bamboo rat appeared and adored him. Gautama spoke thus: 'This rat at my feet shall be born again as Dut-ta-baung; and in the hundred and first year of my religion he shall found, at the spot where that piece of cow-dung now is, the large town of Tha-re-khettra (Srí-kshettra); and in his reign shall my religion spread far and wide.' The date of the foundation of this city can be fixed; for some of the histories of Prome—all of which agree in giving the year 101 of the Buddhist era as the date—state that it was in the first year after the second great Buddhist council, and this is known from independent testimony to have taken place about 443 B.C. Tha-re-khettra was situated 5 or 6 miles east of the present town of Prome, and was, according to the annalists, surrounded by a wall 40 miles long, with 32 large and 23 small gates. About the beginning of the 2nd century of the Christian era, the town was abandoned, and fell into ruins. Embankments and pagodas, standing in rice-fields and swamps, alone mark the site of what was once the capital of a powerful kingdom. The next date which can be fixed with any accuracy is the accession of a king in whose reign was held the third Buddhist council. This was called together by Asoka in the twenty-second year of his rule, counting from his accession, and in the eighteenth from his coronation, and assembled under the guidance of the Arahat Mogaliputra in 244 B.C. In a monograph upon the legendary history of Burma and Arakan, a recent writer, Captain C. J. F. Forbes, Deputy Commissioner, says the Prome dynasty dates from 444 B.C. to 107 A.D. During the reign of the third monarch of the line, Captain Forbes relates that two important events took place in the contemporaneous history of India. The first was the invasion of India by Alexander the Great (B.C. 327). The second was the assemblage of the third great Buddhist council in 308 B.C., to collect and revise the sacred books. The third council here alluded to is not different from the one mentioned above as having been called by Asoka in 244 B.C.: the apparent difference is caused by variant calculations founded on the Burmese dates.

It is not until about 90 B.C.[1] that any statements by historians of other countries are available as checks on the Prome chroniclers. About that year, the Buddhist scriptures were reduced into writing in Ceylon; and this fact, which is noticed in the Burmese palm-leaf chronicles, is stated there to have taken place in the 17th year of a king named Te-pa. This sovereign, who was originally a poor student for the priesthood and was adopted by his childless predecessor, must

[1] Dr. Mason says 93 or 94 B.C. Sir J. Emerson Tennent in his work on Ceylon, third edition, page 376, says in 89 B.C.

thus have ascended the throne *circa* 107 B.C. He is stated to have been the 11th monarch since the foundation of the capital; but this would give over forty years as the average length of the reign of his predecessors, except that of Dut-ta-baung, who, it is asserted, reigned for seventy years.

The Te-pa dynasty occupied the throne of Tha-re-khettra for 202 years, or until 95 A.D., when the monarchy was broken up by civil war and an invasion by the Kan-ran tribe from Arakan. The last king was Thu-pa-nya. His nephew Tha-mun-da-rit fled first to Taung-ngu, south-east of Prome; he then crossed the Irawadi to Pa-daung, but being still harassed by the Kan-rans, he went northwards to Min-dun. He finally recrossed the river, and founded the city of Lower Pagan, in 108 A.D. In establishing his new kingdom he was greatly assisted by a scion of the old Ta-gaung race of kings, named Pyu-min-ti or Pyu-saw-ti, who married his daughter and afterwards succeeded him.

From about the middle of the 14th to the beginning of the 16th century, the greater part of the Pagan kingdom was parcelled out amongst a crowd of adventurers from the Shan States. In about 1365, a descendant of the old Ta-gaung dynasty succeeded in re-establishing the Burmese monarchy, but it lasted only a few years.

In 1404, Raza-di-rit, king of the Talaing kingdom on the south, the capital of which was at Pegu, invaded Burma; and passing by Prome and Mye-deh, ravaged the country near the chief city, Ava. Towards the close of the 15th century, the power of the rulers at Ava may be said to have ceased. Their dominions were divided amongst a number of independent Burmanized Shan Saw-bwas or chiefs, one of whom was settled at Taung-ngu. In 1530, Min-tara-shwe-ti, or Ta-bin-shwe-ti, ascended the throne of Taung-ngu; and four years later, commenced his aggressive career by invading Pegu. In two campaigns, the power of the Talaing king was broken, and he fled to Prome, and Min-tara-shwe-ti fixed his capital at Pegu. An alliance was formed against him by the kings of Ava, Prome, and Arakan; but their forces were successively routed by Ta-bin-shwe-ti and his renowned general, Burin-naung, in the neighbourhood of Prome, which surrendered in 1542. In the later years of his life, Ta-bin-shwe-ti is said to have associated with a dissipated Portuguese adventurer; and he was murdered in May 1550, after a glorious reign of twenty years, in which time he had raised himself from being merely Saw-bwa of Taung-ngu to the position of lord paramount over Pegu, Tenasserim, and Upper Burma, as far as Pagan, with the kings of Burma and Siam paying him tribute. He was succeeded by the general to whom much of his military success was owing, viz. Burin-naung, who assumed the title of Shin-pyu-mya-shin (literally, 'Lord of many Elephants'), from the fact of his having taken

six white elephants from the King of Siam. It was not without fightir however, that Burin-naung obtained possession of the throne. N sooner was Ta-bin-shwe-ti dead, than the rulers of Prome and Taun ngu—though they were Burin-naung's own brothers—declared ther selves independent, and the old royal Talaing family again set up i claim to the throne of Pegu. Burin-naung speedily reduced his refra tory brothers to subjection. Commencing with Taung-ngu, he crosse thence to Mye-deh and Ma-lun, and there obtaining a fleet of boat sailed down by water to Prome. Having subdued Prome, he wer northwards, and had nearly reached Ava when he was recalled by th intelligence that the Peguans were about to attack Taung-ngu. Th attempt he easily frustrated. He now called a family gathering, an distributed the Provinces of the empire among his brothers, makin them tributary princes of Martaban, Prome, and Taung-ngu. Th great king, Shin-pyu-mya-shin, died in 1581, and his vast empire shortl afterwards fell to pieces. The seat of government was removed afte his death to Taung-ngu, and one of his younger sons, Nyaung-ran-min tara, established his capital at Ava.

The second dynasty of Ava kings which was thus established laste for about a century and a half, and was ultimately overthrown by ar invasion from Pegu. The Talaings were driven into revolt by the mis government of the officers sent down from Ava. They established thei independence; and the second king, Byi-nya-da-la, invaded the Burmar territory, captured Ava, and carried off the king a prisoner to Pegu The whole of Upper Burma was reduced, with the exception of one village, Mut-so-bo, some miles to the north of Ava. The head-mar of this village, Maung Aung-zeya, refused to surrender to the Talain conquerors, and was repeatedly attacked, but always without success The fame of his patriotism and ability soon spread, and a crowd o Burmese, who chafed under the domination of the Talaings, gathere round him and acknowledged him as their leader. With their assistanc he drove the Talaings out of Ava and the whole of Upper Burma. H then assumed the title of Alaung-min-tara-gyi, or Alaung-paya (corrupte by Europeans into Alompra), and became the founder of the third an last dynasty of Ava kings (1753 A.D.). In 1758 he conquered Pegu and carried away captive Bya-hmaing-ti-raza, the last of the Talain kings.

From this period till the annexation of Pegu by Lord Dalhousie i 1853, at the close of the second Anglo-Burmese war, Prome remained Province of the Burmese kingdom.

Population.—Until the year 1870, Prome included Thayet-myo Dis trict, and no separate details of population are available. By the Censu of 1872, the number of inhabitants was returned at 274,872. Th Census of 1881 returned a total population of 322,342, and disclose

the fact that in the decade since 1872, an increase of 47,470 had taken place. In 1881, males were found to number 161,433, females 160,909; density per square mile, 111·6. The people dwelt in 3 towns and 1647 villages, containing together 62,800 occupied and 1675 unoccupied houses; towns and villages per square mile, ·57; houses per square mile, 22·3; persons per house, 5·1. Distributed as regards religion, Hindus number only 978, and Muhammadans 1795; Christians number 484; Nat or demon worshippers, 5819; Pársís, 5; but by far the largest portion of the population, numbering 313,261, or 97·2 per cent., are Buddhists. Of the Muhammadans, 902 are Sunnís, 813 Shiás, 21 Wáhábís, 21 Faraizís, and 38 'others.' Of the Christians, 290 are Baptists, 121 members of the Church of England, 49 Roman Catholics, and the remainder, dissenters, followers of the Greek Church, and unspecified. Of the total Christians returned, 335 are natives. Taking language as a test of race, pure Burmese number 301,214; Arakanese, 192; Chins, 10,662; Karens, 3021; Talaings, 10; Shans, 3602; Chinese, 371; Hindustánís, 1552; Bengalís, 158; Tamils, 410; Manipuris, 963; English, 95; and a few of other foreign or cognate nationalities.

The Census distributes the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 3805; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 508; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 4935; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 56,744; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 17,700; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 77,741.

The Kyins or Chins, a portion of the mountain race which extends far north into Upper Burma and westward into Arakan, are found generally to the west of the Irawadi. When living near the Burmese, the men adopt the Burmese costume much more readily than the women, whose tattooed faces unmistakably betray their origin. Their professed religion is Buddhism. The Shans are settlers from the north-east of Ava, a patient hard-working people. The Manipuris, locally called Kathays, were brought to Prome as Burmese captives, and are Hindus in religion. They are principally engaged in silk-weaving. The natives of India and the Chinese are immigrants engaged in cattle-dealing and trade. It is impossible to give with complete accuracy the number of persons dependent upon agriculture, as many combine the occupations of agriculturists and fishermen as the season serves, and still more have, under the charge of members of their families, small retail shops for the sale of almost every kind of article. The number, however, returned in the Census Report (1881) as agriculturists—that is, as employed in

growing and collecting the produce of the land—is 54,463 males and 51,532 females, aggregating 105,995, or nearly one-third of the whole population.

Town and Rural Population.—The chief towns of Prome District are—PROME, on the left bank of the Irawadi, and the terminus of the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway, population (1881) 28,813; SHWE-DAUNG, a large trading centre, population 12,373; PA-DAUNG, population 2267; PAUNG-DEH, population 6727. The principal pagodas in the District are the Shwe-san-daw in Prome, and the Shwe-nat-daw, 14 miles south of that town. The former, situated on a hill about half a mile from the left bank of the Irawadi, rises from a nearly square platform to a height of 80 feet, and covers an area of 11,025 square feet. It is surrounded by 83 small gilded temples, each containing an image of Gautama. Many marvels are told concerning the erection of this pagoda; and it is said to have been raised on an emerald box, resting on seven ingots of gold, in which were deposited three hairs of Gautama himself. Successive kings and governors have added to and embellished the building. The annual festival, attended by thousands of devout Buddhists, is held in Ta-baung, corresponding to our month of March. The Shwe-nat-daw Pagoda also stands on high ground, and immediately below it is a plain where, early in the year, as many as 20,000 pilgrims sometimes assemble for the annual eight days' festival or religious fair held here. The palm-leaf chronicles relate that the Shwe-nat-daw was originally built by San-da-de-wi, wife of Dut-ta-baung, who reigned from 443 to 372 B.C. This king granted to the pagoda, and set apart from secular uses for ever, the whole space around it on which its shadow fell between sunrise and sunset, and directed that a grand festival should be held there annually on the full moon of Ta-baung.

Of the 1650 towns and villages in Prome District, 1187 contain (1881) less than two hundred inhabitants; 418 from two to five hundred; 41 from five hundred to one thousand; 1 from two to three thousand; 1 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple product of the District, being cultivated mainly in the Paung-deh and Shwe-daung townships. The grain is soft and unsuited for a long sea voyage, and used to be consumed in the District or exported northwards to Mandalay. Owing, however, to the opening of the railway, a considerable quantity is now brought south, as it will bear the short voyage through the Suez Canal. Tobacco is grown on the banks of the Irawadi after the floods have fallen. Cotton is sown on the hill-sides, and is partially cleaned in Prome, and sent down to Rangoon for export, sometimes mixed with a shorter-stapled kind, imported from Upper Burma. Near Prome, and on the

hills opposite, are numerous fruit-gardens, the custard apple predominating, no less than 667 acres being planted with this tree; mixed fruit-trees cover an area of 15,580 acres.

The *taungya* or nomadic system of cultivation is more extensively adopted than in any other District of Lower Burma, the estimated area being 12,347 acres in 1882-83. A portion of the forest is cleared, and the timber felled early in the dry season; just before the rains it is fired, and the logs and brushwood reduced to ashes. On the first fall of rain, the crop is sown; and after it has been reaped, the clearing again becomes waste. One kind of injury generally caused is the over-luxuriant growth of dense jungle that immediately springs up; but in this District the fertilizing effect of the ashes has the opposite result, for an unusual number of young teak and other valuable trees are found on deserted *taungya* clearings.

In 1882-83, the total area under cultivation in Prome District was 239,512 acres, the average holding of each cultivator being 7 acres. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 151,920 acres; tobacco, 2154 acres; vegetables, 3747 acres; fruit-trees, 12,155 acres: the area under cotton in 1876-77 was 1529 acres. In 1881, the area under rice was 196,543 acres; tobacco, 2732 acres; vegetables, 3024 acres; fruit-trees, 17,436 acres; cotton, 2606 acres. The figures for 1882-83 are—rice, 198,560 acres; tobacco, 3326 acres; vegetables, 2457 acres; fruit-trees, 16,171 acres; and cotton, 3093 acres.

In Pa-daung the land is a good deal encumbered with debt and obligations, owing probably to its having been more thickly peopled in former years, and to many of the inhabitants having crossed the river to Shwe-daung and mortgaged their land to obtain funds for trading. But, as a rule, proprietors everywhere live close to their landed property. The rates of rent per acre in 1882-83 were—rice-land, from 8s. to £1, 10s.; land for oil-seeds, 10s.; land for cotton, 10s.; land for tobacco, £1; *taungya* land, 10s.; garden land for fruit-trees, £3, 10s.; land for pulses, 6s. Compared with the average for the whole Province, these rates are high in respect of land for tobacco, cotton, and particularly fruit-trees. The produce per acre from each sort of land yearly was as follows in 1882-83:—Rice, 1485 lbs.; tobacco, 1606 lbs.; vegetables, 730 lbs.; cotton, 106 lbs.; and oil-seeds, 584 lbs Prices current in the same year were—rice, 7s. 6½d. per *maund* (80 lbs.); tobacco, 9s. 7d. per *maund;* cotton, 6s. 7d. per *maund;* and oil-seeds, 11s. 10d. per *maund.* In 1882-83, the price of a plough-bullock was £5; of a sheep or a goat, £1, 12s.; of an elephant, £90; of a buffalo, £7; and of a Pegu pony, £9. Fish sold at 3d. per lb. The agricultural stock of the District included in 1882-83—cows and bullocks, 128,879; horses and ponies, 464; sheep and goats, 694; pigs, 12,770; buffaloes, 31,390; elephants, 8; carts, 32,818; ploughs,

38,270; and boats, 2087. Skilled labourers received 4s. a day, and unskilled 1s. 6d.

Manufactures, etc.—One of the most important manufactures of the District is silk. Neither the worm nor the mulberry are indigenous to the Province, but were most probably imported from China down the Irawadi valley. That this lucrative manufacture is not more general may be attributed to the fact that it involves taking the life of the chrysalis—an act of impiety regarded with horror by every rigid Buddhist. The silk-growers are nearly all Yabaings, a race of the same stock as the Burmese, by whom, however, they are held in contempt; and those who breed silk-worms live in separate villages, and hold little intercourse with their neighbours. They are exceedingly few, for only 436 pure Yabaings are returned by the Census of 1881 for the whole Province. The price of the raw silk, when brought to the markets on the river bank, varies from 5 rupees 8 annas (or 11s.) to 9 rupees (or 18s.) per lb., the average being 7 rupees 4 annas (or 14s. 6d.). The method pursued in this industry is rude and careless in the extreme, all the processes being carried on in the ordinary bamboo dwelling-houses of the country, which are smoke-begrimed and dirty. The plant of a Burmese silk filature is inexpensive, consisting simply of—(1) a set of flat trays with slightly raised edges, made of bamboo strips from 2 to 4 feet in diameter; (2) a few neatly made circles of palm-leaves, 3 or 4 inches in diameter; (3) some strips of coarse cotton cloth; (4) a common cooking pot; (5) a bamboo reel; and (6) a two-pronged fork. Silk-weaving is carried on principally in the towns of Prome and Shwe-daung; but a loom forms part of the household furniture of every Burmese family. The best cloths are made from Chinese silk, which costs £4 per *viss* or 3·65 lbs., whilst the same quantity of the home-grown article costs only £2, 18s. The number of male workers in silk returned by the Census of 1881 was 2140, of whom 928 were spinners, 64 weavers, and the remainder merchants and petty dealers.

The other manufactures of the District are—ornamental boxes used for keeping palm-leaf books, made in Prome town only; coarse sugar, varying in price from £1 to £1, 10s. per 80 lbs.; in 1877 there were 500 sugar-boilers. The monthly out-turn of one furnace is estimated at 4562 lbs. Cutch, made in the wooded townships of Shwe-lay, Maha-tha-man, and Pa-daung from fibre of the Acacia Catechu, sold on the spot in 1876–77 for 4s. 7½d. per *maund* of 80 lbs., but fetched 19s. 7½d. in the Rangoon market. In 1881–82 it sold on the spot for 15s. 7½d. per *maund* of 80 lbs., but fetched £1, 13s. in the Rangoon market. Three men can produce an out-turn of from 25 to 36 lbs. of cutch daily. In 1877–78 this industry gave employment to 2040 persons; the number of cauldrons was 2282. In 1881 it employed 4325 persons, of whom 4265 belonged to the rural population. Cheroots

are manufactured to a small extent. Only women are employed at this craft, and one woman can turn out about 400 cheroots daily.

Telegraph lines run from Rangoon *viâ* Paung-deh and Shwe-daung to Thayet-myo, and from Prome to Taung-gup in Arakan. All messages from Upper Burma and the whole country east of the Irawadi, including Rangoon, to Calcutta and Europe, pass by this latter line. The chief road in the District is that from Rangoon *viâ* Paung-deh, and across the Wek-put and Na-win streams, to Prome. Soon after the annexation of Pegu, a military road was constructed over the Arakan range, but it is now in disrepair. The Irawadi Valley (State) Railway traverses the District, with stations at Paung-deh, Sinmyisweh, Theh-gon, Hmaw-za (Moza), and Prome. Total length of railroad within the District, 38½ miles. Numerous dry-weather cart-tracks connect village with village. The mails are carried from Rangoon by the railway daily, and thence to Thayet-myo by steamer of the Irawadi Flotilla Company, which now plies daily instead of once a week as formerly.

Administration.—Under native rule the larger portion of the imperial income was derived from a poll-tax levied by the chief local authority, but the assessments on each house were left to the village *thúgyí*. Certain royal lands near Prome were held by a class of tenants called Lamaing, on payment of a rent of half the produce—a kind of tenure which existed nowhere else in the Province. The gross revenue in 1869-70, before Thayet-myo was separated from Prome, was £80,328, of which £28,457 was derived from land and £34,069 from capitation dues. The gross revenue in 1877-78 amounted to £68,574; the expenditure was £15,913. In 1881, the gross revenue was £78,817; and in 1882-83, £92,676. Of the latter sum, £29,258 was derived from land. The remainder accrued from capitation and minor taxes. The local revenue raised in 1877-78 (excluding that of Prome town) amounted to £6323; and in 1881 to £7187. Under Burmese rule, the District was divided into small independent tracts, administered by *wun* and *myo-thúgyí*, under whom were *taik-thúgyí*, *rwa* or village *thúgyí*, and *kyedangye*. The officers in charge all communicated directly with the court at Ava. Under British rule, Prome has been split up into 6 townships, each under a *myo-uk* or an extra-Assistant Commissioner, who is entrusted with limited fiscal, judicial, and police powers. The number of *thúgyí* has been reduced from 140 to 120. The townships are Ma-ha-tha-man, Shwe-leh, Paung-deh, Theh-gon, Shwe-daung, and Pa-daung. Prome town is a municipality; income in 1882-83, £1228. Over the whole District is a Deputy Commissioner, with 8 Assistants. In 1877 the regular police force consisted of 379 officers and men paid from Provincial revenues. The total cost was £9681. In 1882-83 the regular police force consisted of 467 officers and men; total cost, £11,984. There are courts in the

chief towns of the District, viz. Prome, Pa-daung, Shwe-daung, and Paung-deh. For many years, education in Prome District was entirely in the hands of Buddhist monks and a few native laymen, whose teaching was confined to reading and writing. Soon after the annexation of Pegu (1853), the American Baptist missionaries opened village schools and a normal school at Prome; in 1866 the State established a middle-class school in the same town, and since then several others have been opened. In 1876–77, the average daily attendance at the State school was 108; and in 1881–82, 82. In pursuance of the scheme for utilizing the monasteries as far as possible in giving a sounder education than had hitherto been imparted, an officer was appointed in 1873–74 to inspect all schools the head monks of which would allow their pupils to be examined. In 1877–78, 85 monastic and 29 lay schools were inspected. In 1881–82, the number of monastic and lay schools inspected was 291. The total number of schools on 31st March 1884 was 565 public and 180 private institutions. Scholars in the former, 12,470; in the latter, 1393. In 1866–67, the Prome jail was reduced to the grade of a lock-up, and the construction of a new prison at Thayet-myo was begun; in 1878, the site of the lock-up was bought by the Railway Department, and the prisoners removed to Thayet-myo. There is no prison of any kind now in Prome.

Climate. — The climate of Prome is much drier than in other Districts of Lower Burma. The total rainfall in 1877 was returned at 53·46 inches; and in 1881 at 42·9. The average rainfall at Prome town for the twelve years ending 1881 was 53·23 inches. There are 3 dispensaries in the District, namely, at Prome town, Paung-deh, and Shwe-daung; in-door patients (1882), 966; out-door, 10,736. Ophthalmia is very prevalent in the District. [For further information regarding Prome District, see *The British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879, vol. ii. pp. 489–522). Also see the *British Burma Census Report* of 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of British Burma from 1880 to 1884.]

Prome.—Chief town and head-quarters of Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 18° 43′ N., and long. 95° 15′ E., on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). By railway, 161 miles distant from Rangoon. The town extends northwards from the foot of the Prome Hills to the bank of the Na-win, with a suburb on the farther side of that stream; and eastwards for some distance up the Na-win valley. It is divided into several municipal quarters, viz. Na-win on the north, Ywa-beh on the east, Shin-su on the south, and Shwe-ku and San-daw in the centre. In Burmese times, the east side was closed in by a ditch, which has been filled up, for during the dry weather it proved a fertile source of fever. Skirting the high

river bank are the police office, the Government school, the court-houses, the church, and the telegraph station. The Strand road traverses the town from north to south, and from it numerous well-laid roads run eastwards. North of Shin-su is the great Shwe-san-daw Pagoda, conspicuous among the dark foliage of the trees covering the slopes of the hill on which it stands. In the Na-win quarter, a large trade in *nga-pí* or fish-paste is carried on. Here are the markets, consisting of four distinct buildings. Farther south, overlooking the river and separated from it by the Strand, are the charitable dispensary and Lock hospital—wooden buildings, well raised above the ground. The railway station, at present the terminus of the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway, lies a little south of the court-houses. The town was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1862.

Prome is mentioned in ancient histories as the capital of a great kingdom before the Christian era, but the town spoken of was Tha-re-khettra (Srí-kshettra), some miles inland, of which traces still exist. After the destruction of Tha-re-khettra, about the end of the 1st century, Prome belonged sometimes to Ava, sometimes to Pegu, and sometimes was independent. But since the conquest of Pegu by Alaung-paya, it remained a Burmese town until Pegu was annexed by the British in 1853. In 1825, during the first Anglo-Burmese war, when Sir Archibald Campbell was advancing on the capital, endeavours were made to induce him to halt before reaching Prome, but he declined entering into negotiations. Upon the first appearance of our troops, the place was partly burned by the Burmese, and though strongly fortified, it was deserted. After the signing of the Treaty of Yandabu in 1826, the British evacuated Prome District with the rest of the Irawadi valley. During the second Anglo-Burmese war in 1852, the town was attacked by the flotilla under Commander Tarleton, and taken ; but almost immediately abandoned, as there were no troops to hold it. Three months later, in October of that year, the advance from Rangoon took place. The flotilla arrived off Prome on the morning of the 9th, and each ship was cannonaded as it passed up, but with little effect. After a short contest, the place was again occupied. On the 15th of October, Maha Bandúla, the Burmese commander, surrendered, and the enemy were driven out of the District. Gradually the country settled down, and a regular civil government was established. The British garrison in Prome first encamped on the hills south of the town, but were subsequently transferred to Nwa-ma-yan, near Shwe-daung. In 1854 they were removed to Thayet-myo, which was nearer the frontier, and supposed to be healthier.

In 1872 the population of Prome town was returned at 31,157, inclusive of all wayfarers and casual inhabitants. In 1877 the popula-

tion was estimated at 26,826. In 1881 the Census returned the population at 28,813, of whom 14,982 were males and 13,831 females. According to religion, 26,735 were Buddhists, 1160 Muhammadans, 650 Hindus, 263 Christians, and 5 'others.' The municipal revenue in 1877–78 was £9638, and the expenditure £7984: in 1881–82 the revenue was £11,500, and the expenditure £10,879. In 1874 the town was erected into a municipality, and since then great improvements have been made—tanks have been dug, swamps filled in, the town lighted with kerosene oil lamps, and public gardens have been laid out. The total amount spent on public works up to the close of 1877–78 was £9282, inclusive of a loan of £726; and up to the close of 1881–82, £24,061. In 1882 the Prome dispensary afforded relief to 542 in-door, and 5380 out-door patients.

Pubna.—District, Sub-division, and town in Bengal.—*See* PABNA.

Púdúkattái (*Poodoocottah*, 'The Tonda-man's Country').—Native State in Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 15′ and 10° 29′ N. lat., and between 78° 45′ and 79° E. long., entirely surrounded by the British Districts of Tanjore, Trichinopoli, and Madura. Area, 1101 square miles. Population (1871) 316,695; (1881) 302,127, almost entirely agricultural. The Census of 1881 affords the following details:—Number of males, 142,810; females, 159,317; dwelling in 1 town and 596 villages, containing 58,449 occupied and 15,635 unoccupied houses. The density of the population was (1871) 288, and (1881) 274 persons to the square mile. Hindus (in 1881) numbered 281,809, or 93·28 per cent.; Muhammadans, 8946, or 2·96 per cent.; and Christians, 11,372, or 3·76 per cent., of whom nearly all were Roman Catholics. The largest class among the Hindus were the Vannians or labourers and husbandmen (82,954); next comes the caste of Shembadavans or fishermen (53,961), forming 19 per cent. of the population; Vellálars, agriculturists (30,139); and Idayars or shepherds (26,158). Pariahs numbered 26,568. The professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, is returned—males 4964, and females 391; the domestic class, including servants, inn and lodging keepers, at males 1208, and females 3104; the commercial class at males 2587, females 361; the agricultural class at males 75,292, females 54,543; the industrial or artisan classes at males 11,040, females 9075; and the indefinite and non-productive classes at males 47,719, females 91,843. There is only one town, PUDUKATTAI—population (1881) 15,384.

The country is for the most part a flat plain, interspersed with small rocky hills, some of which are crowned by old forts. In the south-west, hills and jungles are found, but elsewhere the State is well cultivated. There are 3000 tanks, some of considerable size. Products—rice and dry grains. Iron-ore is found in places, but is not worked. Silk-

weaving is carried on. Manufactures of cloths, blankets, and mats. The gross revenue of the State is £60,000, but the alienations of land revenue are extensive. Members of the Rájá's family hold 110,000 acres, 95,627 acres have been granted to temples, and 9584 acres to almshouses. The *ináms* or rent-free grants held by Bráhmans, and the various service tenures, amount to 100,000 acres. After these deductions, only 3 *lákhs* (say £30,000) of the revenue is payable to the Rájá. The following statistics relate to the year 1882-83:—Land revenue, £29,998; State expenditure on public works, £5326; on State jewels, £5400; strength of police, 177 officers and men; number of convicts in jail, 87, cost of maintenance £329; number of pupils in the Rájá's College, 337; dispensary—in-door patients 137, and out-door 10,576; number of persons successfully vaccinated, 2397. Total force, including village police and personal retinue, 3636.

The first connection of the British Government with this chief, then usually called Tondaman (a family name derived from the Tamil word meaning 'a ruler'), was formed at the siege of Trichinopoli in 1753, when the British army greatly depended on his fidelity and exertions for supplies. Subsequently he was serviceable in the wars with Haidar Alí and in the Pálegár war, the name given to the operations against the usurpers of the large *zamíndárí* of Sivagangá in Madura District after the cession of the Karnátik. In 1803 he solicited as a reward for his services the favourable consideration of his claim to the fort and district of Kilanelli, situated in the southern part of Tanjore. This claim was founded on a grant by Pratáp Singh, Rájá of Tanjore, and on engagements afterwards entered into by Colonel Braithwaite, General Coote, and Lord Macartney. The Government of Madras granted the fort and district of Kilanelli; and the cession was confirmed by the Court of Directors, with the condition that the revenue should not be alienated, and that it should revert to the British Government upon proof being given at any time that the inhabitants laboured under oppression.

The present Rájá, Rámachandra Tondaman Bahádur, has received a *sanad* granting the right of adoption. He exercises independent jurisdiction, but is considered as an ally subject to the advice of the British Government. He maintains a military force of 126 infantry, 21 cavalry, and 3260 militia, besides armed servants and watchmen. The succession follows the law of primogeniture.

Púdúkattái (*Poodoocottah*).—Chief town of Púdúkattái State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 23′ N., long. 78° 51′ 51″ E. Population (1871) 13,978: (1881) 15,384, of whom 7274 are males and 8110 females. Hindus number 14,089; Muhammadans, 914; Christians, 381. An unusually clean, airy, and well-built town.

Pukhra.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated 5 miles

east of the Gúmti river, on the Rái Bareli and Haidargarh road. Population (1881) 2544, of whom 2470 were Hindus and 74 Muhammadans. Number of houses, 510. Fine Sivaite temple and handsome masonry bathing *gháts*. Pukhra is the head-quarters of the estate of Pukhra Ansári, belonging to the Amethi Rájputs.

Puláli. — Petty State in Jhálawár Division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* PALALI.

Pulgáon.—Railway station in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 44′ N., and long. 79° 21′ E., near the river Wardhá, which has a picturesque waterfall close by. Population (1881) 645. The site was previously unoccupied; but when the spot was selected for the station, land was also set aside for a village. Two roads connect Pulgáon with the cotton marts of Deolí and Hinganghát, and with Arví and Ashtí. The latter is a good fair-weather road, all the streams being bridged or provided with causeways. The Hindus deem Pulgáon a holy place, and have built a temple in the neighbourhood.

Puliangudi.—Town in Sankaranainarkoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated on the old Madura road, in lat. 9° 10′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 26′ 15″ E. Population (1871) 6810, inhabiting 1618 houses; and (1881) 6401, inhabiting 1383 houses. Hindus number 5602; Muhammadans, 714; and Christians, 85. Police station; post-office.

Pulicat (*Paliyáverkádu*). — Town in Ponneri *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 25′ 8″ N., long. 80° 21′ 24″ E. Population (1871) 4903, inhabiting 846 houses; and (1881) 4967, inhabiting 849 houses. Hindus number 3426; Muhammadans, 1306; and Christians, 235. The town lies at the southern extremity of an island which divides the sea from the large lagoon called the Pulicat Lake, which is about 37 miles in length by from 3 to 11 in breadth, 23 miles north of Madras city. This salt-water lake is under the influence of the tide, and must have been produced by an inroad of the sea during a storm, when it topped the low ridge of the coast-line.

Pulicat was the site of the earliest settlement of the Dutch on the mainland of India. In 1609 they built a fort here, and called it Geldria; and in 1619 they allowed the English a share in the pepper trade with Java (Eastwick). Later, it was the chief Dutch Settlement on the Coromandel coast. It was taken by the British in 1781; restored in 1785 to Holland under the treaty of 1784; and surrendered by them in 1795. In 1818, Pulicat was handed over to the Dutch by the East India Company, agreeably to the Convention of the Allied Powers in 1814; in 1825, finally ceded to Great Britain under the treaty of March 1824. The backwater is connected with Madras by

Cochrane's Canal. There used to be a considerable trade between Pulicat and the Straits Settlements, but of late years this has considerably declined. The old Dutch cemetery, which was rescued from decay by Sir Charles Trevelyan, contains many well-cut tombstones, some of them nearly 300 years old. Roman Catholics resort to Pulicat in great numbers on certain feast days.

Púlikonda (*Pullicondah*, from *Pallikondai*, 'you lie down'). — Village in Vellore *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 54′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 59′ E., on the road from Madras by Vellore to Bangalore; distant from the former place 97 miles, and from the latter 115 miles. Population (1881) 2405, inhabiting 357 houses. It lies at the base of a high hill near the right or southern bank of the Palár. The trade is chiefly carried on by Labbays (Lubbais). Gunny-bags are manufactured. The sacred name for the place is Adirangam. Annual fair; post-office; fine pagoda.

Púlivendala (lit. *Púli-mandalam* = the abode of tigers).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 701 square miles. Population (1881) 95,617; namely, 49,006 males and 46,611 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 103 villages, containing 19,787 houses. Hindus number 87,462; Muhammadans, 8127; Christians, 27; and 'others,' 1. The *táluk* is hilly; and the greater portion of the land is unirrigated. Throughout the westernmost half spreads the rich loam known as cotton soil. Along the eastern limits of the *táluk*, the waters of the Pápaghni irrigate a large area on both banks. Cotton and *cholam* (Pennisetum typhoideum) divide the greater part of the land between them. Other cereals and pulses, with oil-seeds, indigo, are also grown. Before the subjugation by the English of the Ceded Districts in 1800, Púlivendala *táluk* was given up to the rule of several small *pálegárs*, whose memories still linger round their now ruined forts dotted here and there over the country. These forts are, as a rule, a mud enclosure, about 100 yards square, surrounded by ditch and glacis. At each corner stands a round tower, and midway between each two corner towers a square bastion, loop-holed, as is the whole face of the wall, for musketry. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 79 men. Land revenue, £18,353.

Púlivendala. — Town in Cuddapah District, Madras, and head-quarters of Púlivendala *táluk*. Population (1881) 1885, dwelling in 397 houses. Government garden; post-office.

Pullampet.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Area, about 979 square miles. Population (1881) 134,366, namely, 68,162 males and 66,204 females, dwelling in 130 villages, containing 29,667 houses. Hindus number 126,593;

Muhammadans, 7696; and Christians, 77. Black *regár* (cotton) and red soil predominate, the former of which is rich and fertile. To the east and west the *táluk* is intersected by hill ranges. Seventy-seven square miles are reserved forest lands. The principal manufactures are indigo and cotton of very fine texture, which is highly prized for turbans and ornamental cloths. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 82 men. Land revenue, £21,371.

Pullampet. — Town in Cuddapah District. Population (1881) 2311, dwelling in 503 houses. Fine mats of coloured grass are manufactured, which form house mats, and are exceedingly ornamental. Indigo and cloth of fine texture are the other manufactures of the town. Post-office.

Pulney.—Town and hills in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PALNI.

Pulu (*Poo-loo*).—Tidal creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It branches from the Myaung-mya river in about lat. 16° 35′ 30″ N., and then runs south and west into the Ywe. Navigable at all times by river steamers plying between Rangoon and Bassein.

Púna.—District and town in Bombay Presidency.—*See* POONA.

Punádra. — Petty State in the Mahi Kántha Agency, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Watruk river. Villages, 11. Estimated area, 12½ square miles; under cultivation, 16,650 *bighás*. Population (1881) 3767. The revenue is returned (1882–83) at £1570; and tribute of £37, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Products—*bájra*, rice, and wheat. The Miah of Punádra, Abhi Singh, is a Mukwána Kolí, converted to Islám. The Miahs observe a sort of mixed Muhammadan and Hindu religion, giving their daughters in marriage to Muhammadans of rank, and marrying the daughters of Kolí chiefs. On their death their bodies are buried, not burnt. There is 1 school with 24 pupils. Transit dues are levied in the State.

Punakha. — The winter capital of Bhután State, on the Bhagni river, lat. 27° 32′ N., long. 89° 53′ E. Punakha lies about 100 miles north-east of Dárjíling. It has a scanty and poor population, but possesses some importance as the residence of the Bhután Court during the winter months. It was selected for this purpose owing to its mild climate, and comparative accessibility from the Indian plains.

Púnamallu (*Poonamallee*, *Pondamalái*).—Town and cantonment in Saidapet *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 2′ 40″ N., long. 80° 8′ 11″ E. Lies 13 miles west of Madras city. A military cantonment, with a Magistrate and District *munsif.* Population (1881) of town 2849, dwelling in 390 houses, and of cantonment 4821, dwelling in 722 houses. Of the total, Hindus

numbered 6162; Muhammadans, 814; and Christians, 694. The permanent European population of the place are chiefly pensioners. A convalescent depôt for British troops from the whole Madras Presidency and Burma is located here, the climate being very salubrious. The number of men is usually about 150. A fine hospital, with 90 beds, is built on the site of the old fort, the walls of which have been levelled. There is no garrison. The fort played a conspicuous part in the wars of the Karnátik. Post-office and Government rest-house.

Punása.—Town in the north of Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 14′ N., and long. 76° 26′ E., 33 miles from Khandwá. Once a considerable place, held by Tuár chiefs. The fort, built in 1730 by Rám Kushal Singh, afforded a refuge for European families during the Mutiny in 1857. The country round is mostly waste, having never recovered from the ravages of the Pindárís; it has now been converted into a Government reserved forest. The large tank was repaired by Captain French in 1846. A market is held every Saturday.

Púndri.—Town and municipality in Kaithál *tahsíl*, Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 45′ 30″ N., long. 76° 36′ 15″ E., situated on the bank of an extensive tank, known as the Púndrak *taláo*, which gives its name to the town, and which nearly half surrounds it with bathing places and flights of steps leading to the water. Population (1881) 4977, namely, Hindus, 3343; Muhammadans, 1630; Sikhs, 3; and Jain, 1. Number of houses, 342. Municipal income (1883–84), £196, or an average of 9½d. per head. The town is surrounded by a mud wall with four gates, and nearly all the streets are paved. Several large brick houses, and a good brick *sarái* or native inn. Little trade. School and police station.

Pundúr. — Tract of country in Keunthál State, Punjab, lying between 30° 58′ and 31° 4′ N. lat., and between 77° 35′ and 77° 42′ E. long. (Thornton). It consists of a mountain ridge, running north-east and south-west, with an estimated elevation of from 6000 to 7000 feet above sea-level. It formerly belonged to Jubbal State, but after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas it devolved upon the East India Company, who transferred it to Keunthál. Estimated population, 3000.

Punganúr.—*Zamíndárí* estate in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 523 square miles. Population (1881) 72,143, namely, 36,377 males and 35,766 females, dwelling in 1 town and 68 villages, containing 15,271 houses. Hindus number 68,406; Muhammadans, 3598; and Christians, 139.

The estate lies above the *gháts*, in the north-west corner of the District. Mysore State bounds it on the west. Large game is abundant, and twenty-five years ago (1860) elephants were found. An

excellent breed of cattle is raised. Granite, lime, and iron-sand are plentiful. About 40,000 acres are under cultivation, 9000 acres being irrigated. Sugar-cane is largely cultivated. Exports—raw sugar, tamarinds, grain, and jungle produce. Imports—salt and fine cloths. The *táluk* has 110 miles of road. Income (1880), £9410; *peshkash* (permanent rent), £6686.

Punganúr.—Head-quarters of the Punganúr *zamíndárí* in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 13° 21′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 36′ 33″ E., on a plateau 2000 feet above the sea. Population (1881) 7672, dwelling in 1603 houses. Hindus number 6306; Muhammadans, 1305; and Christians, 61. Punganúr was one of the Cuddapah (Kadapa) Paláyáms, and possessed considerable importance at one time, the Pálegár having 5000 men under him. In 1642 the country was taken by the Maráthás, and in 1713 it was occupied by the Cuddapah Nawáb. In 1755 the Maráthás, and in 1774 Haidar Alí, subdued the Pálegár. After various vicissitudes, the family was restored by the British in 1799. One of the Pálegárs fell at the battle of Wandiwash. The town is prosperous, and contains 1603 good houses. The temperature is much lower than in other parts of the District. A large cattle fair is held in April. A pair of Mysore bullocks have recently fetched here so high a price as £60. The *zamíndár's* palace has accommodation for European travellers. In the courtyard are stalls for a menagerie; a museum; and several life-sized models of natives of different castes in their customary dress or undress. A mile from the town are the ruins of a large Roman Catholic chapel, bearing date 1780. School; post-office.

Punjab (*Panj-áb*, 'The Five Rivers').—Province of British India, under the administration of a Lieutenant-Governor; lying between 27° 39′ and 35° 2′ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 78° 35′ E. long. Area under direct British administration, 106,632 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 18,850,437. The Native States in dependence upon the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab (exclusive of Kashmír, which has recently been separated from the Punjab, and placed under the direct superintendence of the Government of India) have an estimated area of 35,817 square miles, with a population in 1881 of 3,861,683 persons. The total area of the Punjab (British and Native) accordingly amounts to 142,449 square miles, and its population (1881) to 22,712,120. The entire Province, with its attached Feudatory States, comprises one-tenth of the total area, and one-eleventh of the total population of the Indian Empire. It numbers among its inhabitants one-fourth of the Muhammadan, one-twentieth of the Hindu, and eleven-twelfths of the Sikh subjects of the Queen. Together with Kashmír, which lies further north, it occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Empire, and comprises the whole of British

India north of Sind and Rájputána and west of the river Jumna. The Punjab is bounded on the north by Kashmír (Cashmere) and the Hill States of Swát and Boner; on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná), the North-Western Provinces, and the Chinese Empire; on the south by Sind, the river Sutlej (Satlaj), and Rájputána; and on the west by Afghánistán and Khelát (Balúchistán). The capital of the Punjab is LAHORE, situated in about the centre of the Province, but the principal city in population and importance is DELHI, the ancient metropolis of the Mughal dynasty.

The table on pp. 245 and 246 shows the Divisions and Districts of the Punjab, with the area and population of each in 1881, together with the Native States.

Physical Aspects.—In its strict etymological sense, the Punjab, or region of the Five Rivers, comprises only the tract of country enclosed and watered by the confluent streams of the SUTLEJ (Satlaj), the BEAS (Biás), the RAVI, the CHENAB (Chináb), and the JEHLAM (Jhelum). But modern territorial arrangements have included under the same designation three other well-demarcated tracts, namely—the Sind Ságar Doáb, or wedge of land between the Punjab Proper and the Indus; the Deraját, or narrow strip of country west of the Indus, and stretching up to the Sulaimán mountains; and the cis-Sutlej Districts, or table-land of Sirhind, between the Punjab Proper and the Jumna (Jamuná), the greater part of which belongs historically and physically to the North-Western Provinces, though now transferred for administrative purposes to the Lieutenant-Governor at Lahore.

As stated above, the Punjab includes two classes of territory, namely, 32 British Districts, and the States of 34 native chiefs, almost all of whom pay tribute in some form or other, and all of whom are subject, more or less, to control by the local government. Of the 107,010 square miles included in British territory, 11,170 square miles are irrigated, 36,656 square miles are cultivated, 36,706 square miles more are classed as cultivable, and would repay the labour of the husbandman were means of irrigation available, while the remaining 33,648 square miles consist of inhospitable mountain-sides or uncultivable waste.

The dominions of the 34 native chiefs vary in size and importance, from the principalities of Patiála and Baháwalpur, with areas of 5500 and 17,300 square miles, and populations of 1,500,000 and 600,000 respectively, and ruled over by chiefs subject only to the most general supervision, to the tiny State of Darkuti, with an area of 4 square miles and a total population of 590 souls, whose ruler is independent in little more than the name. They may be grouped under three main classes. The Hill States, lying among the Punjab Himálayas, and held by some

[*Sentence continued on p. 247.*

Area, Population, etc., of the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, together with the Native States (1881).

District and Division.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages	Number of Houses.	Number of Families.	Population.			Revenue (1883-84).	
					Total Population.	Males.	Females.	Land.	Gross.
								£	£
Delhi, ...	1,276	701	73,359	141,470	643,515	344,016	299,499	78,505	111,479
Gurgáon, ...	1,938	1,160	65,986	153,421	641,848	338,917	302,931	101,412	112,982
Karnál, ...	2,396	863	68,271	118,608	622,621	336,171	286,450	53,395	68,030
Total Delhi Division, ...	5,610	2,724	207,616	413,499	1,907,984	1,019,104	888,880	233,312	292,491
Hissár, ...	3,540	631	73,127	107,793	504,183	272,267	231,916	42,418	51,446
Rohtak, ...	1,811	486	74,813	117,963	553,609	296,224	257,385	65,440	78,346
Sirsa, ...	3,004	635	30,535	51,596	253,275	138,691	114,584	21,986	32,197
Total Hissár Division, . . .	8,355	1,752	178,475	277,352	1,311,067	707,182	603,885	129,844	161,989
Ambála, ...	2,570	2,226	146,517	251,649	1,067,263	588,272	478,991	78,148	114,820
Ludhiána, ...	1,375	859	104,231	141,719	618,835	339,598	279,237	92,700	127,659
Simla, ...	18	263	6,559	12,063	42,945	27,593	15,352	1,359	15,259
Total Ambála Division, . . .	3,963	3,348	257,307	405,431	1,729,043	955,463	773,580	172,207	257,738
Jálandhar, ...	1,322	1,208	115,663	181,369	789,555	431,435	358,120	122,405	172,391
Hoshiárpur, ...	2,180	2,093	156,096	205,185	901,381	481,526	419,855	128,623	162,414
Kángra, ...	9,069	681	112,430	151,672	730,845	380,867	349,978	61,468	90,280
Total Jálandhar Division, . . .	12,571	3,982	384,189	538,226	2,421,781	1,293,828	1,127,953	312,496	425,085
Amritsar, ...	1,574	1,039	121,155	207,268	893,266	490,694	402,572	79,691	130,482
Gurdáspur, ...	1,822	2,272	111,242	185,133	823,695	445,798	377,897	106,249	142,391
Siálkot, ...	1,958	2,312	114,262	224,052	1,012,148	539,661	472,487	111,713	145,531
Total Amritsar Division, . . .	5,354	5,623	346,659	616,453	2,729,109	1,476,153	1,252,956	297,653	418,404
Lahore, ...	3,648	1,486	160,296	186,592	924,106	510,353	413,753	56,615	125,457
Gujránwála, ...	2,587	1,196	88,571	124,492	616,892	333,605	283,287	51,173	71,722
Firozpur, ...	2,752	1,189	74,429	142,463	650,519	357,319	293,200	51,561	78,497
Total Lahore Division, . . .	8,987	3,871	323,296	453,547	2,191,517	1,201,277	990,240	159,349	275,676

AREA, POPULATION, ETC.—(*Continued*).

District and Division.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Houses.	Number of Families.	Population.			Revenue (1883–84).	
					Total Population.	Males.	Females.	Land.	Gross.
								£	£
Ráwal Pindi,	4,861	1,647	102,283	162,052	820,512	449,287	371,225	68,878	108,109
Jehlam,	3,910	956	72,013	131,753	589,373	313,448	275,925	69,411	87,041
Gujrát,	1,973	1,334	83,193	149,112	689,115	362,162	326,953	60,761	77,820
Sháhpur,	4,691	657	72,084	98,905	421,508	221,676	199,832	39,020	55,290
Total Ráwal Pindi Division,	15,435	4,594	329,573	541,822	2,520,508	1,346,573	1,173,935	238,070	329,160
Múltán,	5,880	1,293	93,599	115,847	551,964	304,517	247,447	56,282	102,715
Jhang,	5,702	761	67,024	85,064	395,296	214,382	180,914	30,966	55,388
Montgomery,	5,574	1,616	74,830	85,585	426,529	232,947	193,582	27,652	61,858
Muzaffargarh,	3,139	694	62,215	72,798	338,605	184,510	154,095	39,825	71,669
Total Múltán Division,	20,295	4,364	297,668	359,294	1,712,394	936,356	776,038	154,725	291,630
Dera Ismáil Khán,	9,296	746	88,908	101,514	441,649	238,468	203,181	17,275	58,459
Dera Ghází Khán,	4,517	603	58,543	75,293	363,346	200,667	162,679	34,396	51,409
Bannu,	3,868	477	57,106	70,674	332,577	177,503	155,074	32,467	55,036
Total Deraját Division,	17,681	1,826	204,557	247,481	1,137,572	616,638	520,934	84,138	164,904
Pesháwar,	2,504	690	87,720	123,563	592,674	329,524	263,150	63,029	90,995
Hazára,	3,039	1,183	67,412	119,407	407,075	218,616	188,459	22,151	29,249
Kohát,	2,838	367	22,442	32,365	181,540	101,369	80,171	9,345	15,717
Total Pesháwar Division,	8,381	2,240	177,574	275,335	1,181,289	649,509	531,780	94,525	135,961
Khaibar Pass,	...	...	...	...	8,173	7,970	203	...	...
Total British Territory,	106,632	34,324	2,706,914	4,128,440	18,850,437	10,210,053	8,640,384	1,876,319	2,753,038
Native States,[1]	35,817	18,546	655,392	847,468	3,861,683	2,112,303	1,749,380	...	...
Grand Total, British and Native Territory,	142,449[2]	52,870	3,362,306	4,975,908	22,712,120	12,322,356	10,389,764	...	...

[1] Details of the area, population, etc., of the thirty-four Native States will be found in the article on the Punjab Native States, as well as in the separate article for each State, in its proper alphabetical place.

[2] This is the area as returned in the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881. The *Punjab Administration Report* for 1883–84 returns the total area of the thirty-two British Districts at 106,772 square miles. The Report for 1882–83 gives the area of the Native States at 37,426 square miles.

Sentence continued from p. 244.]
of the most ancient Rájput families in all India, include Chamba, Mandi, Suket, and the twenty Simla States, of which last only four, namely Náhan, Biláspur, Bashahr, and Nálagarh, exceed an area of 250 square miles, or a population of 17,500. Along the western half of the southern border, and separated from British territory by the Sutlej, lies the Muhammadan State of Baháwalpur, consisting of the left Sutlej valley and a broad strip of the Rájputána desert. The remaining States, including the possessions of all the great Sikh feudatories, lie wholly east of Lahore, and, with insignificant exceptions, occupy the centre of the eastern plains of the Province.

Mountain Systems.—The mountain regions of the Punjab naturally fall under four separate groups. To the north-east of the Province lies the Himálayan system of the Punjab Proper, with the fringing range of the Siwáliks at its foot. In the south-eastern corner of the Punjab the Aravalli system sends out insignificant outliers which run across Gurgáon and Delhi Districts, and strike the Jumna at Delhi. The lower portion of the western frontier is constituted by the great Sulaimán chain; while the north-western corner of the Province lies among and within a tangled series of peaks and ranges, marking the point of junction of the Himálayas of Kashmír, the Safed Koh, and the Sulaimáns, and is cut off by the Salt Range and its trans-Indus continuation from the great plains which lie to the east and south. The first and last of these four groups are separated by Kashmír territory, which, from the Himálayan State of Chamba on the east to the Jehlam on the west, stretches down to and includes the foot of the mountain ranges.

The Sulaimáns.—The Sulaimán mountains run almost due north and south along the western border of the Province for between 300 and 400 miles. They consist of several parallel ranges of barren mountains, between which lie valleys that are fertile only by comparison The frontier of British India runs sometimes at the foot and sometimes along the crest of the easternmost of these ranges; and the mountains themselves, which are inhabited by independent or semi-independent tribes of Patháns and Balúchís, belong to the Punjab in little more than a geographical sense.

The Aravallis.—The Aravallis, which run through Gurgáon and the south of Delhi District, consist of low ranges of insignificant hills covered with brushwood, and are interesting chiefly from a geological point of view, as, with the exception of the isolated peak of Karána in Jhang, they form the northernmost extremity of the peninsular rock system, so distinct from the later formations of the Himálayas.

The Himálayan System.—The mountain system of the Himálayas, so far as it concerns the Punjab, consists primarily of three great ranges

running in a generally north-westerly direction from the head-waters of the Sutlej to the Indus,—the Western Himálayas or Zanskár or Bára Lácha range, the mid-Himálayas or Pír Panjál range, and the outer or sub-Himálayas. From these three great ranges spring numerous minor ranges as ribs from a backbone, the whole forming a confused system of mountain chains and valleys, the breadth of which is some 90 miles at its eastern extremity, from Láhul to the Siwáliks of Hoshiárpur, and some 150 miles measured at its western extremity across Kashmír.

The Western Himálayas.—The Western Himálaya or Zanskár or Bára Lácha range separates the valley of the Upper Indus which lies to its north from the mountain-basins of the five Punjab rivers. It runs from the sources of the Sutlej along the northern borders of Kanáwár in Bashahr, Spiti, Láhul, Pángi (in Chamba) and the Kashmír valley, till pierced by the Indus at the base of the mighty Nanga Parbat. Thence it passes on to join the Pámír and Hindu Kúsh near the sources of the Kuner and Gilghit rivers. It separates the Aryans of India from the Bhotias of Tibet, and the cold, dry, treeless steppes of Central Asia from the luxuriant humidity of India. The average height is 19,000 feet, or greater than that of the Andes; the average height of the peaks being 20,770 feet, and that of the passes 15,700 feet. The snow-line lies at 18,500 feet on the southern and at 19,000 feet on the northern face.

The Mid-Himálayas.—The mid-Himálaya or Pír Panjál range divides the valleys of Spiti, Láhul, and Kashmír on the north from those of Kúlu, Plách, and Chamba on the south, and terminates on the Indus at the Hazára border in the celebrated peak of Mahában, though the Swát range may perhaps be considered its trans-Indus continuation. Its general direction is north-west, and it is divided into three well-marked sections by the great rivers which pierce its chain. The easternmost or Bashahr range is an offshoot of the Western Himálayas, and extends for a distance of 60 miles from Jamnotri to the Sutlej below Ghatul. Beyond the Sutlej it is continued by the Láhul range, which runs for 160 miles to the great southward sweep of the Chenáb in Kishtwár (Kashmír). Thence the Pír Panjál runs for about 180 miles to the great southward sweep of the Jehlam at Muzaffarábád, and across Jehlam and Hazára Districts to the Indus at Darband. The average height of its peaks is 19,000, of its passes 15,520, and of the chain 17,000 feet in the Bashahr and Láhul sections. The Pír Panjál range is probably some 5000 feet lower. The snow-line is at 16,000 feet on the northern, and 17,000 feet on the southern face.

The Outer Himálayas.—The outer or sub-Himálayas stretch in a north-westerly direction, through Suket and Mandi and between Kángra and Chamba, for a distance of some 300 miles, and terminate on the

Indus at the Hazára border in the well-known peak of Gandgarh. Starting from the bend of the Beas (Biás) at Mandi, they are pierced by the Rávi, Chenáb, Púnch, and Jehlam rivers, which divide them into five distinct sections. The easternmost section is the precipitous range of the Dháola Dhár or White Mountains, which, lying between the Beas and the Rávi, form the natural boundary between Kúlu and Mandi and between Kángra and Chamba, and is the highest portion of the range, reaching an average of 15,000 feet. Its length is some 80 miles, and it includes the hill stations of Dharmsála and Dalhousie. The second portion, about 55 miles in length, lies between the Rávi and Chenáb, and shuts in Chamba and Badrawár (Kashmír) to the south. Its average height may be put at 12,000 feet. The central portion of the range is known as the Ratan Panjál; it stretches from the Chenáb to the southern bend of the Púnch river, for a distance of about 80 miles, and ranges in height between 7700 and 11,000 feet. The fourth section, about 25 miles in length, runs from the Púnch river to Dhangáli, the ancient Ghakkar capital on the Jehlam. The westernmost division of the range runs for 70 miles between the Jehlam and the Indus, and attains a height of above 17,000 feet. The outer Himálayas have no perpetual snow.

The Hills of Simla and Hazára.—All those great Himálayan chains terminating on the Indus at or about the Hazára border are bound together by two considerable ranges which, springing from the western extremity of the Western Himálayas, run southwards down either side of the Kágán valley and Hazára District, the more eastern striking the Jehlam and following its course to merge with the Murree hills; while the more western, which separates the Himálayas from the Hindu Kúsh, terminates on the Indus where it meets the Hazára border. At the opposite or eastern extremity of the system, the cis-Sutlej Himálayas, in which the sanitarium of Simla is situated, occupy a corresponding position, running in a generally south-westerly direction, and separating the head-waters of the Sutlej from those of the Jumna and Ganges.

The Siwáliks.—The Siwáliks are an insignificant range of low hills which, rising abruptly from the plains, skirt the foot of the Himálayas from the Ganges to the Beas. At the widest part, as they approach the Sutlej, they are above 10 miles broad. Between them and the Himálayas proper lie a series of fertile valleys known as *dúns;* and the hills themselves are clothed with forest timber of some value, save at their western extremity, where they degenerate into little more than sandhills.

The Salt Range and the Pesháwar Hills.—The connecting link between the Sulaimáns on the west and the Himálayas on the north still remains to be described. The outer Himálayas, crossing the

Jehlam, run up the eastern boundary of Ráwal Pindi District. There they and the mid-Himálayas meet on the banks of the Indus in a confused mass of mountains, among which lies Hazára District, and the Kágán valley stretches out, like a huge arm, to where the Indus pierces the Western Himálayan range at the foot of Nanga Parbat. The curved ranges which connect the extremities of the mid-Himálayas and of the Safed Koh enclose to the north the plain which constitutes Pesháwar District; while the northern continuation of the Sulaimáns runs up the western border of Bannu and Kohát to meet the Safed Koh, and throws out eastwards a series of parallel spurs which cover the whole of Kohát District. The circuit is completed by the Salt Range, which, starting from opposite the point where the mid-Himálayas abut upon the Jehlam, runs first along the right bank of the river, then westwards across Sháhpur and Dera Ismáil to the Indus, where it turns down the right bank of that river through Bannu District, and follows the boundary between Bannu and Dera Ismáil till it joins the Sulaimáns. Rising abruptly from the river and the great desert which lies to the south of it as a steep rocky range of from 2000 to 5000 feet in height, the Salt Range of Jehlam and Sháhpur falls away imperceptibly to the north into a great table-land enclosed by the range itself, the Hazára hills, and the Indus river, crossed in every direction by chains of low hills, and cut up by the streams which issue from them into innumerable ravines. It is this table-land which constitutes the Districts of Jehlam and Ráwal Pindi.

The River System.—The Himálayas, which stretch from Northern Punjab and Kashmír far away into Tibet, give birth to seven great rivers, which, after pursuing their courses for, in some cases, many hundreds of miles among snow-clad mountain ranges, debouch on to the plain country, and traverse the Punjab in a southerly direction on their way to the ocean. The hills once fairly left behind, their fall seldom exceeds 2 feet in the mile, and their course is in consequence exceedingly inconstant, varying, often considerably, from year to year. Thus in the process of time each stream has cut for itself a wide riverain lying well below the level of the surrounding plains, the banks of which mark on either side the extreme limits of the river's excursions. Within these low lands, over the whole of which the stream has at some time or other flowed, the river winds its way in a narrow and ever-shifting channel. In the winter the stream is comparatively small; but as the mountain snows melt under the approach of the Indian summer, the waters rise and overflow the surrounding country, often to a distance of several miles on either bank. As the cold returns at the close of the rainy season, the waters recede, leaving wide expanses of fertile loam or less fertile sand, moist for the hand of the cultivator.

The Jumna.—The Jumna and its tributary, the Tons, form the greater portion of the eastern boundary of the Province, along which they flow almost due north and south for about 220 miles.

The Watershed.—A few miles west runs the watershed between the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal, which forms the backbone of extra-peninsular India. West again of this line lies a peculiar area of closed drainage intermediate between the basins of the Jumna and Sutlej, into which the Márkanda, Saraswatí, Ghaggar, and other hill streams pour their waters; while the last-named river affords the only outlet, and passing away westwards into Rájputána, itself gradually dwindles and finally disappears in the arid wastes of that tract. All to the west of this area, as well as the whole mountain region of the Punjab, belong to the Indus system.

The Indus.—The Indus itself enters the Province at Tárbela, on the Hazára-Peshawar border, cuts off the hill tract, presently to be described, of Pesháwar and Kohát Districts from the Punjab Proper, pierces the Salt Range at Kálábágh, and runs almost due south along the whole western frontier of the Province at a distance of from 15 to 30 miles from, and parallel with, the Sulaimáns. The only affluent of any importance that it receives within the Province on its right bank is the Kábul river, which, with its tributaries, the Swát and Bára, drains the Pesháwar valley; for the scanty rainfall of the Sulaimáns is insufficient to feed anything more than hill torrents of intermittent flow. From the east, however, it receives the combined waters of the Jehlam, Chenáb, Rávi, Beas, and Sutlej, the five great rivers which give the Punjab (*panj áb*, or 'five waters') its name, and which traverse its plains, lying in that order from west to east.

The Sutlej.—The Sutlej, rising in Chinese Tartary, enters the Province in the State of Bashahr, and flowing through the territories of hill feudatories, debouches on the plains at Rúpar in Ambála District. Thence it flows due west for 120 miles as far as Firozpur, where it receives the waters of the Beas, and thence south-west for about 270 miles, till, joined by the combined Rávi, Chenáb, and Jehlam, it pours the united waters of the five rivers into the Indus opposite Mithánkot, about 70 miles above the Sind border.

The Chenáb.—The Chenáb takes at once its name and its origin from the twin streams of the Chandra and Bhága, which drain the Himálayan valley of Láhul. Traversing Chamba and south-eastern Kashmír, with a generally western course, it re-enters the Punjab at the middle point of its northern border, just below the town of Jamu. Thence it runs, first to the south-west, but gradually changing to the south, for some 300 miles to join the Sutlej about 40 miles above the confluence of the later with the Indus, receiving the waters of the

Jehlam at about the midway point of its course in the plains, and those of the Rávi about 50 miles lower down.

The Beas and Rávi.—Between the Sutlej and Chenáb flow the smaller streams of the Beas and the Rávi. The former rises in the Kúlu Himálayas, runs westwards through Mandi and Kángra, enters the plains at the north-western extremity of Hoshiárpur District, and joins the Sutlej after a south-western course of about 70 miles. The latter rises in Chamba, enters the plains about 15 miles west of the Beas, and flows 260 miles to the south-west, to join the Chenáb about 90 miles above the confluence of that river with the Sutlej.

The Jehlam.—Finally, the Jehlam, rising in Kashmír, flows due south along the boundary between that State and Hazára District for a distance of 100 miles, and enters the plains at the town of Jehlam, whence it flows south-west for 100 miles, as far as Sháhpur, and then 70 miles farther in a southerly direction till it joins the Chenáb 150 miles above its confluence with the Sutlej.

The Punjab Plains.—South of the great Himálayas stretch the great plains which constitute by far the larger portion of the Province. If we except the Himálayan and Salt Range tracts, the Punjab presents, from the Jumna in the east to the Sulaimáns in the west, one vast level, unbroken save by the wide eroded channels within which the great rivers ever shift their beds, by the insignificant spurs of the Aravalli mountain system in the south-eastern corner of the Province, and by the low hills of Chiniot and Karána in Jhang. From the watershed of the Jumna the slope is uniformly westwards towards the Indus basin, broken locally by the successive steps which part the catchment-basins of the Punjab rivers, and which, often almost imperceptible to the eye, always lie close to the right bank of the channel. From the foot of the hills the plain country slopes southwards till it approaches the southern border of the Province, when it begins to rise again towards the peninsular area. The lowest contour runs from Delhi west by north, a little south of Rohtak and Hissár, and bifurcates between Hissár and Sirsá, the northern branch going north-north-west along the Himálayan spill to the south of Lahore, while the southern branch curves to the south-west along the Aravalli spill to the west of Bikáner. The combined result of these two slopes is a fall in a south-westerly direction, at right angles to the mountain ranges and parallel with the general course of the rivers; but this fall is exceedingly gentle, seldom exceeding two or three feet in the mile.

The whole of these vast plains are of alluvial formation. Stones are unknown, save at the immediate foot of the hills; micaceous river-sand is to be found everywhere at varying depths; and the only mineral is nodular accretions of limestone (*kankar*) which are produced *in situ*. The soil is a singularly uniform loam; true clay is almost unknown;

and the quality is determined chiefly by the greater or smaller proportion of sand present. In the local hollows and drainage lines the constant deposit of argillaceous particles has produced a stiff tenacious soil, singularly adapted to rice cultivation; while in the beds of the great rivers, and on the wind-fretted watersheds, pure sand is commonly found. The great *thal* which lies between the Jehlam-Chenáb and the Indus, bordered on the south by the Rájputána desert, and on either side by the two large rivers, consists of a series of rolling sand-hills formed by the wind, which run parallel to the great breakwater of the Salt Range, and are separated by valleys in which the original surface is exposed. In parts, and especially where local conditions raise the level of the water, the salts natural to the soil have been concentrated on the surface by continuous evaporation, and have covered the ground, often for miles together, with a saline efflorescence known as *reh*, which is fatal to vegetable life. But where neither *reh* nor sand is present, the soil is uniformly fertile, if only the rainfall be sufficient, or means of irrigation be available. Throughout the greater part of the western plains of the Punjab, however, neither of these conditions is satisfied, and wide steppes of intrinsically fertile soil, locally known as *bár*, are useful only as grazing grounds for herds of camels and cattle. The depth of water beneath the surface varies greatly. Throughout the broad riverains and immediately below the hills it ranges between 10 and 30 feet; but the depth increases with the distance from the rivers and the hills, and in many parts of the Province is as much as 150 to 200 feet, while the water, when reached, is often so brackish as to be harmful to both animal and vegetable life.

Physically, the eastern plains form an arable tract of moderate rainfall and almost without rivers, save along their northern and eastern edges; while the western plains consist of arid pastures with scanty rainfall, traversed by five great rivers, of which the broad valleys alone are cultivable. Ethnographically, the distinction between the people of the two tracts is in a large measure that between the Hindu inhabitants of India and the Musalmán peoples of the trans-Sulaimán country. But the difference is not merely, or even chiefly, one of religion. The tribal organization, the structure of society, the customs of daily life, and even the tenures of land, present a very marked contrast in the two tracts; and perhaps the distinctions may be best summed up by saying that, to the east the caste, and to the west the tribe, is the social unit. Within the hills and in the submontane zone which skirts them, the same distinction is to be found. But the line which separates the eastern from the western type, lies much farther to the west than in the plains, and may be said roughly to pass through the point where the Salt Range leaves the Himálayas.

The Himálayan Tract.—Within the great network of mountain

ranges which fringe the central system of the Himálayas are situated the States of Chamba, Mandi, and Suket, together with Náhan, Bashahr, and the eighteen smaller States which are under the charge of the Superintendent of Hill States at Simla, the hill station of Simla, and the great Kángra District, the latter including the Kúlu valley, which stretches up to the mid-Himálayas, and the cantons of Láhul and Spiti, which, situated beyond the mid-Himálayas, belong geographically to Ladákh and Tibet, rather than to India. This mountainous tract includes an area of about 19,840 square miles, much of which is wholly uninhabited, and a scanty population of about 1,539,000, living scattered about the remaining area in tiny hamlets perched on the hill-sides or nestling in the valleys, each surrounded by its small patches of terraced cultivation, irrigated from the streams which run down every gully, or fertilized by the abundant rainfall of the hills.

The people chiefly consist of hill Rájputs, including Thakars, Ráthís, and Ráwats, and of Kanets, Ghiraths, Bráhmans, and the Dágís or menials of the hills. But it is probable that only the very highest classes among the Bráhmans and Rájputs have preserved the purity of their blood. It is certain that the Aryan and aboriginal stocks have mingled with unusual freedom; and all between the very highest and the very lowest form a practically continuous series, within which it is difficult to draw any definite lines of demarcation. The hill people are, whether by origin or by long isolation from their neighbours of the plains, very distinct from the latter in most respects; and they speak dialects peculiar to the hills, though belonging to the Hindi group, except in the trans-Himálayan cantons where Tibetan is spoken. They are almost exclusively Hindus, but curiously strict as regards some, and lax as regards others, of the ordinances of their religion. The nature of the country prevents the growth of large towns; trade is confined to the little that crosses the high passes leading into Tibet; and the people are almost wholly rural, supplementing the yield of their fields by the produce of numerous flocks of sheep and goats, and by rude home manufactures with which they occupy themselves during the long winter evenings. They keep very much to themselves, migration being almost confined to the neighbouring mountains and low hills.

The Submontane Tract.—Skirting the base of the hills, and including the low outlying range of the Siwáliks, runs the narrow submontane zone, with an average breadth of 25 to 30 miles measured from the foot of the Himálayas proper. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall and traversed by streams from the neighbouring hills, has an area of about 6680 square miles, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly-peopled portions of the Province, and is inhabited by a population of about 2,998,000, who occupy an intermediate position in regard of race, religion, and language between the peoples of the hills

and of the plains, Muhammadanism being less prevalent, Hindí more generally spoken, and Rájputs and hill menials more numerous than among the latter. The Gújars form a special feature of this zone. The tract has only one town, Siálkot, of more than 22,000 inhabitants; its trade and manufactures are insignificant, and its population is almost entirely agricultural, and in the low hills pastoral.

The Eastern Plains.—Turning to the plain portions of the Punjab, we find that east of Lahore the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons. But over the greater portion of this area, the margin is so slight that, save where the crops are protected by artificial irrigation, any material reduction in the supply entails distress, if not actual famine. Thus, while the eastern plains, comprising only a quarter of the area of the Province, include half its cultivation, nearly half its population, and almost all its most fertile portions, they also include all those parts which, by very virtue of the possibility of unirrigated cultivation, are peculiarly liable to disastrous failure of crops.

The eastern plains may be roughly divided into four separate regions. A broad strip parallel to the submontane zone partakes in a lower degree of its ample rainfall. It is traversed by the Upper Sutlej, the Beas, the Rávi, the Bári Doáb Canal, and many smaller streams, which bring down with them and deposit fertilizing loam from the lower hills; irrigation from wells is everywhere easy; and the tract is but little inferior in fertility, security of produce, and populousness to the submontane zone itself. Its width varies from 20 to 30 miles; its area is some 8600 square miles; and its population about 4,035,000.

The next most fertile strip is that running along the eastern border of the Province, parallel to the Jumna river. It enjoys a fair average rainfall; it includes the low riverain tract along the Jumna itself, where well-irrigation is easy; the Saraswatí and its tributaries inundate a considerable area, and much of it is watered by the Agra and Western Jumna Canals, so that it is for the most part well protected against famine. It has an average breadth of about 35 or 40 miles; its area is about 4870 square miles; and its population about 1,848,000.

A large part of the southern border of the eastern plains skirts the great Rájputána desert. The soil here is often inferior; the rainfall is always scanty and precarious; while, except in the south-eastern corner, where alone can wells be profitably worked, irrigation is almost unknown, save where the Western Jumna Canal enters Hissár, and the Sutlej borders Sirsá District. Its width is from 40 to 50 miles, its area about 11,570 square miles, and its population about 1,665,000. This and the central portion, next to be described, together constitute the great area of closed drainage already mentioned, and are the parts of the

Punjab where famine is most to be dreaded. The Sirhind Canal, the main line of which was opened in 1882, will, however, protect a large part of the central, and some portion of the southern tract.

The remaining or central portion of the eastern plains includes the larger part of the Sikh States. Its area is about 9980 square miles, and its population about 2,810,000. It occupies an intermediate position in respect of fertility between the two preceding tracts, the rainfall generally being highest and the soil best to the east, west, and north, in the direction of the Jumna, the Sutlej, and the hills, and lowest and worst in the centre and south; while to the north-east the Ghaggar system of hill streams inundates a certain area, and well-irrigation is practised along the Sutlej and the northern border.

The eastern plains include all the most fertile, wealthy, and populous portions of the Province, and may be called the granary of the Punjab. Within them lie the three great cities of Delhi, Amritsar, and Lahore, besides a very large proportion of the larger towns; and the population is, by comparison with that of the western punjab, largely urban. Trade and manufactures flourish, while, with the exception of the south-westward portions, where flocks and herds pasture in extensive jungles, the greater part of the cultivable area is under the plough.

The Western Plains. — The great plains lying to the west of the Lahore meridian present a striking contrast with those to the east of that line. They form the common terminus of the two Indian monsoons, which have exhausted themselves of their vapour before they reach their goal; and the rainfall, heaviest in the north and east, and decreasing towards the west and south, is everywhere so scanty that cultivation without irrigation is absolutely impossible. But in this very circumstance they find their security against famine or distress from drought, for their cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass, in itself a sufficiently serious calamity. Rain is, of course, needed here as elsewhere; but its absence means only a diminished yield, and not, as in the eastern plains, no yield at all; and so little is sufficient if the fall comes at the right time, and absolute drought occurs so seldom, that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. Indeed, more danger is to be anticipated from excessive flood than from deficient rainfall. The tract is traversed throughout its length by five great rivers, the Sutlej, Rávi, Chenáb, Jehlam, and Indus; and along either side of each of these runs, at a distance of a few miles, a more or less distinctly marked bank which defines the excursions of the river within recent times as it has shifted from side to side in its course. These banks include between them strips of low-lying land which are periodically inundated by the rising floods

as the winter snows of the Himálayas melt under the summer sun or in which the nearness of subsoil water makes well-irrigation easy. All outside these narrow boundaries is a high arid plain. Beyond the Indus, and between the Sutlej and the Jehlam and its continuation in the Chenáb, it consists of soil which, wherever water is available, is sufficiently fertile, save where, north of the Sutlej, saline efflorescence clothes the surface for miles together like a recent fall of snow. But between the Indus and the Jehlam-Chenáb, and south of the Sutlej, it is covered by great parallel lines of rolling sand, separated by narrow hollows, in which the original soil is exposed.

Numerous streams, for the most part of intermittent flow, which run down from the Sulaimán mountains to join the Indus, and innumerable small inundation canals carried out from the Sutlej, the Lower Chenáb, the Upper Jehlam, and the Lower Indus, across the zone of well-irrigation into the edges of the central steppes, render cultivation possible along their courses; while wells sunk in the long hollows of the *thal* or sandy desert, and the drainage of the *bár*, or stiff loam uplands, collected in local depressions, perform a similar office. But though some of the finest wheat in the world is grown on land irrigated from the wells of the western *thal*, the proportion of the area thus brought under the plough is insignificant. The remainder of the tract is covered by low, stunted bush and salsolaceous plants, and with short grass in good seasons. Over this range great herds of camels, which thrive on the saline herbage, and of cattle, sheep, and goats. They are tended by a nomad population which moves with its flocks from place to place as the grass is consumed and the scanty supply of water afforded by the local hollows exhausted, or in search of that change of diet which camels love and the varying local floras afford. The area of the tract is about 60,870 square miles, or more than two-fifths of that of the whole Province; while its population, numbering about 4,885,000, includes little more than one-fifth of the people of the Punjab, and it comprises not one-quarter of the total cultivated area. Múltán is the only town of more than 23,000 inhabitants; and the population is very markedly rural. There is no manufacture of importance, and the great traffic between India and the countries to the west only passes through the tract on its way to the commercial centres of Hindustán. Pastoral pursuits occupy a more important position than in the rest of the Punjab.

Natural Divisions of the Western Plains.—It is the fashion to describe the Punjab Proper as marked off by its rivers into six great *doábs*, which constitute the natural divisions of the Province. This description is true in a sense, but the sense in which it is true possesses but little significance, and its chief merit seems to be that it can easily be verified by reference to a map. To the east of the Lahore meridian such

rivers as there are lie close together within the submontane tract, the whole of the country between and the area of closed drainage beyond them is comparatively populous, and there are no natural boundaries of any great importance. But west of that meridian, or throughout the greater portion of the Punjab Proper, the real obstacles to intercommunication, the real barriers which separate the peoples one from another are, not the rivers, easily crossed at any time and often fordable in the cold weather, but the great arid steppes which lie between those rivers. The advance of the agricultural tribes has followed almost invariably the courses of the great rivers, the new-comers having crept along both banks of the streams and driven the nomads from either side into the intermediate *doábs*, where they have occupied the portions nearest the river lands from which they had been ejected, leaving the median area of greatest aridity as an indefinite but very effectual line of separation.

The Salt Range Tract.—There still remains to be described the north-western corner of the Punjab, situated in the angle where the Safed Koh from the west and the Sulaimáns from the south meet the Himálayas from the east, and separated from the rest of the Province by the Salt Range and the Upper Jehlam. It includes the Pesháwar Division and the Districts of Ráwal Pindi, Jehlam, and Bannu. It presents in almost every respect the strongest possible contrast with the Punjab Proper, and, indeed, as already remarked, can hardly be said to belong to India, save by mere geographical position.

The physical configuration of the Salt Range is so broken and confused, that it is impossible without going into great detail to separate it into parts, each of which shall be even approximately homogeneous. The mountainous tracts of Hazára, and the Murree and Kahúta *tahsíls* of Ráwal Pindi District, with their ample rainfall, and the less favoured District of Kohát, cover an area of 6520 square miles, and contain a population of about 715,000.

The remainder of this tract has an area of about 14,500 square miles, and a population of about 2,209,000. Except immediately under the hills, the rainfall, while quite sufficient in ordinary years, leaves little margin as protection against distress in unfavourable seasons; while, save in Pesháwar and the riverain portions of Bannu, irrigation is almost unknown.

With the exception of Pesháwar and Ráwal Pindi, the Salt Range includes no town of more than 20,000 inhabitants. But the whole trade with Central Asia and Kábul, except the traffic of Dera Ismáil Khán, passes through Pesháwar; and the Salt Range supplies almost the whole of the salt used in the Punjab. The silk and cotton fabrics of Pesháwar are the only manufactures of importance; and the mass of the population follows agricultural, and in the mountain ranges pastoral, pursuits.

Flora and Fauna.—Throughout the Punjab, except upon the hills, wood is scarce. The uplands are generally covered with grass, shrubs, or low jungle of mimosa. Clumps of trees, however, especially palms, *pípals*, and banyans, cluster around the village sites; the mango grows in the south-east Punjab; and in the Deraját large areas are covered with date trees. Government has done much to encourage arboriculture, both by forest conservation and by planting groves round cantonments and public buildings, or along roads and canals.

The fauna of the Province includes tigers, leopards, hyænas, lynxes, wolves, bears, jackals, and foxes; *nílgáis*, antelopes, and deer; wild boar, porcupines, monkeys, and bats; parrots, jungle-fowl, pheasants, partridges, quails, pelicans, eagles, vultures, and many other birds; crocodiles, cobras, and many poisonous snakes. Camels thrive on the hot southern plains; herds of buffaloes revel in the muddy pools and water-side meadows; and excellent horses are bred in the north-western pasture lands, for the use of the chiefs and gentlemen, who pride themselves upon their equestrian habits. The Hissár breed of cattle and the sheep of the Salt Range are also famous.

History.—No part of India possesses greater or more varied historical interest than the Punjab. The earliest Aryan settlers entered the Peninsula by this Province. Its eastern plains include the *Bráhmashidesa*, or Land of Divine Sages—the very cradle of Hinduism. The story of the *Mahábhárata* centres around Tháneswar in Ambála District, and the surrounding country known as the Kurukshetra. The city of Indraprástha, on the site of the modern Delhi, was founded by the five Pándavas, Yudisthira and his brethren, in an unknown period, conjectured to be as remote as the 15th century B.C. Arriving from the yet more ancient capital of Hastínapur on the Ganges, the fair-skinned colonists expelled the dark Nágá aborigines, cleared the land of forest, and founded a great dynasty, whose conflict with their kinsmen, the Kauravas, forms the main subject of the Hindu Iliad. The Salt Range and other portions of the north-western hills are rich in legends of the mythical Pándava age. The obscure chronology of the *Puránas* alone sheds a glimmering ray of light upon the intervening period, until the time of Alexander's invasion in 327 B.C. By that date the Aryan race seems to have spread its ascendancy over Northern India, either subjugating or absorbing the aboriginal tribes. The Bráhmans already appear as the highest caste, and their religion as the national creed of the people.

The Macedonian conqueror entered India from Bactria, crossed the Indus near Taxila, identified by General Cunningham with the ruins of SHAH-DHERI, in Ráwal Pindi District, and, after receiving the adhesion of Mophis or Taxiles, king of that city, proceeded with little resistance to the banks of the Hydaspes or Jehlam (Jhelum). Effecting

the passage of the river at Jalalpur, in Jehlam District, he encountered the army of Porus (Purusha) at Mong, in Gujrát, and completely defeated the Indian monarch, with a loss of 12,000 slain. Porus himself was taken prisoner, but restored by Alexander to his entire kingdom. The conqueror halted for a month in the neighbourhood of the Hydaspes, and founded two cities, Nikaia and Bukephala; after which he overran the whole Punjab, as far as the Hyphasis or Sutlej, on its south-western border. East of that river, in the now barren cis-Sutlej tract, lay a powerful and fertile kingdom, which Alexander was most eager to attack; but the refusal of his troops to proceed any farther from home compelled him to fall back once more upon the Hydaspes. Here he embarked on board a fleet with which he intended to sail down the Indus; and he met with no opposition, except at the hands of the Mallæ, who occupied the modern District of Multan. At the siege of their capital, which probably stood upon the same site as the modern city, Alexander received a severe wound, in revenge for which he put every person within the walls to the sword. After navigating the great river to its mouth, he despatched Nearchus to explore the Persian Gulf, while he himself returned by the deserts of Balúchistán to Susa.

The succeeding Indo-Bactrian dynasty, founded by Alexander's military successors, spread its sway over a considerable portion of the Punjab, and coins or other remains of Hellenic origin occur among almost all the ruined cities throughout the Province. Shortly after the retirement of Alexander, however, Chandragupta, King of Magadha, added the whole Punjab to his dominions (303 B.C.). A century later, the tide of Greek conquest again set eastward, and a Bactrian kingdom once more spread over North-Western India. Between 264–223 B.C., the empire of Asoka, the great Buddhist ruler of Upper India, and grandson of Chandragupta, extended over the country of the Five Rivers; and his rock edicts are found as far north as the Yusafzai valley in Pesháwar. Under this monarch, Buddhism appears to have been the dominant religion throughout the whole Punjab, where it still remained, though in a somewhat decadent condition, at the period of Hiuen Tsiang's pilgrimage in the 7th century A.D. No record exists of the restoration of the earlier Hindu faith; the ruins of the Buddhist temples and monasteries are often rebuilt into Bráhman shrines and Muhammadan mosques. But the undisturbed ascendancy of Bráhmanism, between the downfall of Buddhism and the advent of Islám, was of short duration in the Punjab.

As early as the 7th century, Musalmán invaders from the west are said to have begun to devastate the Punjab. In 682 A.D., according to Firishta, bands from Kermán, who had even then embraced the faith of Islám, wrested certain possessions from the Hindu princes

of Lahore. It was not till 975, however, that Sabuktigín, governor of Khorásán, and father of the great Mahmúd, advanced beyond the Indus, to plant the Muhammadan power firmly in the heart of the Punjab. Jaipál, Rájá of Lahore, whose dominions extended from Kashmír (Cashmere) to Múltán, for a while successfully opposed the invader. But the Rájá unfortunately ventured to imprison the ambassadors whom Sabuktigín, now Sultán of Ghazní, had sent to Lahore to receive a promised ransom. On hearing of this insult, the Ghaznevide monarch, says Firishta, 'like a foaming torrent hastened towards Hindustán,' defeated the perfidious Rájá, and compelled him to retreat to his capital, where the vanquished prince burned himself to death in despair.

His successor, Anangpál, formed a strong confederacy against the Musalmán invaders, whom he succeeded during his lifetime in holding at bay. In 1022, however, during the reign of a second Jaipál, Mahmúd of Ghazní, son of Sabuktigín, marched suddenly down from Kashmír, seized Lahore without opposition, and drove the Hindu prince to take refuge in Ajmere. Under Modúd, 1045 A.D., the Hindus laid siege to Lahore, the Musalmán capital, but after six months of vain attempts, retired without success. 'Thus,' says Al Birúní, 'the sovereignty of India became extinct, and no descendant remained to light a fire upon the hearth.'

Under the early Ghaznevide princes, the Punjab was governed by a viceroy at Lahore; but Masáúd III., having lost most of his dominions in Irán and Turán to the Seljak Túrks, transferred his capital to the banks of the Rávi early in the 12th century. From Lahore, the seat of empire was removed to Delhi by Muhammad Ghori, founder of the second Muhammadan dynasty, *circ.* 1193. Throughout the period of Pathán rule in Upper India the Punjab Proper was governed by imperial deputies, though the capital of the Musalmán power lay always either at Agra, in the North-Western Provinces, or at Delhi, within the limits of the modern Province. Lahore itself formed the focus of the Tártar as opposed to the Afghán party, and the country as a whole was overrun both by the hordes of Chengiz Khán (*circ.* 1245) and of Timúr (1398). The other principal historical events of this epoch comprise the rise of the Ghakkar power in Ráwal Pindi, and the gradual colonization of the tract between the Sulaimán mountains and the Indus by tribes of Balúchí or Afghán descent.

In 1524, the Mughal prince Bábar invaded India, on the invitation of Daulat Khán Lodi, governor of Lahore, and succeeded in conquering the whole Punjab, as far as Sirhind. Two years later, he again swept down from Kábul upon Hindustán, defeated the Afghán army in a decisive battle at Pánípat, entered Delhi as a conqueror, and founded the dynasty known to Europeans as that of the 'Great Mughal.'

Under that magnificent line, the chief seats of the imperial family were at Lahore, Delhi, and Agra; and the Punjab formed the stronghold of the Mughal party against the reactionary Patháu house of Sher Sháh. During the most flourishing age of the Mughals, however, a power was slowly and unobtrusively arising in the Punjab, which was destined in the end to supplant the imperial sway, and to raise up a great independent monarchy in the valley of the Five Rivers.

This power was the Sikhs, originally a mere religious sect, founded by Bába Nának, who was born near Lahore in the latter half of the 15th century, and who died at Dera Nának, on the Rávi, in 1539. A full account of the sect will be found in Prinsep's *History of the Punjab* (2 vols., 1846), and Cunningham's *History of the Sikhs* (2nd ed., 1853), to which works the reader is referred for a complete or detailed narrative. Bába Nának was a disciple of Kabír, and preached as a new religion a pure form of monotheism, eagerly accepted by the peasantry of his neighbourhood. He maintained that devotion was due to God, but that forms were immaterial, and that Hindu and Muhammadan worships were the same in the sight of the Deity. His tenets were handed down by a succession of Gurus or spiritual leaders, under whom the new doctrine made steady but peaceful progress. Rám Dás, the fourth Guru, obtained from the Emperor Akbar a grant of land on the spot now occupied by the city of AMRITSAR (Umritsur), the metropolis of the Sikh faith. Here he dug a holy tank, and commenced the erection of a temple in its midst. His son and successor, Arjun Mall, completed the temple, and lived in great wealth and magnificence, besides widely increasing the numbers of his sect, and thus exciting the jealousy of the Mughal Government. Becoming involved in a quarrel with the Imperial Governor of Lahore, Arjun was imprisoned in that city, where he died, his followers asserting that he had been cruelly put to death.

'This act of tyranny,' writes Elphinstone, 'changed the Sikhs from inoffensive quietists into fanatical warriors. They took up arms under Har Govind, the son of their martyred pontiff, who inspired them with his own spirit of revenge and of hatred to their oppressors. Being now open enemies of the Government, the Sikhs were expelled from the neighbourhood of Lahore, which had hitherto been their seat, and were constrained to take refuge in the northern mountains. Notwithstanding dissensions which broke out among themselves, they continued their animosity to the Musalmáns, and confirmed their martial habits until the accession, in 1675, of Guru Govind, the grandson of Har Govind, and the tenth spiritual chief from Nának. This leader first conceived the idea of forming the Sikhs into a religious and military commonwealth, and executed his design with the systematic spirit of a Grecian lawgiver.'

But their numbers were inadequate to accomplish their plans of resistance and revenge. After a long struggle, Guru Govind saw his strongholds taken, his mother and his children massacred, and his followers slain, mutilated, or dispersed. He was himself murdered in 1708 by a private enemy at Nandair in the Deccan. The severities of the Musalmáns only exalted the fanaticism of the Sikhs, and inspired a spirit of vengeance, which soon broke out into fury. Under Guru Govind's principal disciple, Bánda, who had been bred a religious ascetic, and who combined a most sanguinary disposition with bold and daring counsels, they broke from their retreat, and overran the east of the Punjab, committing unheard of cruelties wherever they directed their steps. The mosques were destroyed and the *mullás* killed; but the rage of the Sikhs was not restrained by any considerations of religion, or by any mercy for age or sex. Whole towns were massacred with wanton barbarity, and even the bodies of the dead were dug up and thrown out to the birds and beasts of prey. The principal scene of these atrocities was Sirhind, which the Sikhs occupied, after defeating the Governor in a pitched battle; but the same horrors marked their route through the country eastward of the Sutlej and Jumna, into which they penetrated as far as Saháranpur. They at length received a check from the local authorities, and retired to the country on the upper course of the Sutlej, between Ludhiána and the mountains. This seems at that time to have been their principal seat; and it was well suited to their condition, as they had a near and easy retreat from it when forced to leave the open country. Their retirement on the present occasion was of no long continuance; and on their next incursions they ravaged the country as far as the neighbourhood of Lahore on the one side, and of Delhi itself on the other.

The Emperor himself, Bahádur Sháh, was compelled to return from the Deccan in order to proceed against the Sikhs in person. He shut them up in their hill fort at Daber, which he captured after a desperate siege; the leader Bánda and a few of his principal followers succeeding by a desperate sally in effecting their escape to the mountains. The death of Bahádur Sháh in 1712 probably prevented the extermination of the sect. During the dissensions and confusion which followed that event, the Sikhs were allowed to recruit their strength, and they again issued from their mountain fastnesses and ravaged the country. In 1716, however, Abdul Samad Khán, Governor of Kashmír, was despatched against them at the head of a large army by the Emperor Farukh Siyyar. He completely defeated the Sikhs in several actions, took Bánda prisoner, and sent him to Delhi, where he was barbarously put to death along with several other of the Sikh chieftains. An active persecution ensued, and for some time afterwards history narrates little of the new sectaries.

In 1738, Nádir Sháh's invading host swept over the Punjab like a flooded river, 'furious as the ocean,' defeated the Mughal army at Karnál in 1739, and sacked the imperial city of Delhi. Though Nádir retired from India in a few months with his plunder, he had given the death-blow to the weak and divided empire. The Sikhs once more gathered fresh courage to rebel, and though again defeated and massacred in large numbers, 'the religion' gained new strength from the blood of the martyrs. The next great disaster of the Sikhs was in 1762, when Ahmad Sháh Duráni, the Afghán conqueror of the Maráthás at Pánípat in the preceding year, routed their forces completely, and pursued them across the Sutlej. On his homeward march he destroyed the town of Amritsar, blew up the temple, filled the sacred tank with mud, and defiled the holy place by the slaughter of cows. But, true to their faith, the Sikhs rose once more as their conquerors withdrew, and they now initiated a final struggle, which resulted in the secure establishment of their independence.

By this time the religion had come to present very different features from those of Bába Nának's peaceful theocracy. It had grown into a loose military organization, divided among several *misls* or confederacies, with a common meeting-place at the holy city of Amritsar. The Mughals had nominally ceded the Punjab to Ahmad Sháh; but the Duráni Emperors never really extended their rule to the eastern portion, where the Sikhs established their authority not long after 1763. The Afghán revolution in 1809 facilitated the rise of Ranjít Singh, a Sikh adventurer, who had obtained a grant of Lahore from Zamán Sháh, the Duráni ruler of Kábul, in 1799. Gradually the able chieftain spread his power over the greater part of the Punjab, and even in 1808 attacked the small Sikh principalities on the east or left bank of the Sutlej. (*See* CIS-SUTLEJ STATES.) These principalities sought the protection of the British—now masters of the North-Western Provinces, with a protectorate over the royal family of Delhi; and an agreement was effected in 1809 by which the States obtained the powerful aid of the British Government, and Ranjít Singh entered into an engagement to preserve friendship with the British Government, and not to encroach on the left bank of the Sutlej, on condition of his sovereignty being recognised over all his conquests north of the Sutlej—a treaty which he scrupulously respected till the close of his life.

In 1818, Ranjít Singh stormed Múltán, and extended his dominions to the extreme south of the Punjab; and in the same year he crossed the Indus, and conquered Pesháwar, to which, shortly after, he added the Deraját, as well as Kashmír. He had thus succeeded during his own lifetime in building up a splendid power, embracing almost the whole of the present Punjab Province, together with the Native State of Kashmír. On his death in 1839, his son Kharak

Singh succeeded to the throne of Lahore, but died, not without suspicion of poison, in the following year. A state of anarchy ensued, during which the Sikhs committed depredations on British territory, resulting in what is known as the first Sikh war. The Sikh leaders having resolved on war, their army, 60,000 strong, with 150 guns, advanced towards the British frontier, and crossed the Sutlej in December 1845. The details of the campaign are sufficiently known. On the 18th December the first action was fought at Múdki, in which the Sikhs attacked the British troops in position, but were defeated with heavy loss. Three days afterwards followed the toughly contested battle of Firozsháh; on the 22nd January 1846, the Sikhs were again defeated at Alíwál; and finally, on the 10th February, the campaign was ended by the capture of the Sikh entrenched position at Sobráon. The British army marched unopposed to Lahore, which was occupied on the 22nd February, and terms of peace were dictated.

These terms were, briefly, the cession in full sovereignty to the British Government of the territory lying between the Sutlej and the Beás rivers, and a war indemnity of 1½ millions sterling. As the Lahore Darbár was unable to pay the whole of this sum, or even to give satisfactory security for the payment of one million, the cession was arranged of all the hill country between the Beas and the Indus, including Kashmír and Hazára; arrangements were made for the payment of the remaining half million of war indemnity; for the disbandment of the Lahore army, and its reorganization on a reduced scale. The other terms included the cession of the control of both banks of the Sutlej; the recognition of the independent sovereignty of Mahárájá Ghuláb Singh of Jamu; a free passage through Sikh territory for British troops; and the establishment of a British Resident at Lahore. In addition, at the request of the Lahore Government, it was settled that a British force should remain at Lahore for a time to assist in the reconstitution of a satisfactory administration. Simultaneously, a treaty was executed with Mahárájá Ghuláb Singh by which the English made over to him in sovereignty the Kashmír territory ceded by the Lahore Government, in consideration of a payment of three-quarters of a million sterling. Shortly afterwards, difficulties arose regarding the transfer of Kashmír, which the Sikh Governor, instigated by Lál Singh, the chief of the Lahore Darbár, resisted by force of arms. Lál Singh was deposed and exiled to British India; and in December 1846 a fresh treaty was concluded, by which the affairs of the State were to be carried on by a Council of Regency, under the direction and control of the British Resident, during the minority of the young Mahárájá, Dhulíp Singh.

For a time, the work of reorganizing the shattered government of the country proceeded quietly and with every prospect of success. But besides many minor causes of discontent among the people, such as the

withdrawal of the prohibition against the killing of kine, and the restored liberty of the much hated and formerly persecuted Muhammadans, the villages were filled with the disbanded soldiery of the old Sikh army, who were only waiting for a signal and a leader to rise and strike another blow for the power they had lost. At length, in April 1848, the rebellion of the ex-Díwán Múlráj at Múltán, and the murder of two British officers in that city, roused a general revolt throughout the Sikh kingdom. Múltán city was invested by hastily raised frontier levies, assisted afterwards by British troops under General Whish; the siege, however, had to be temporarily raised in September, owing to the rapid spread of disaffection among the Sikh troops. The two rebellious Sardárs, Chattar Singh and Sher Singh, invoked the aid of the Amír of Kábul, Dost Muhammad, who responded by seizing Pesháwar, and sending an Afghán contingent to assist the Sikhs.

In October 1848, the British army under the command-in-chief of General Gough, assumed the offensive, and crossed the Sutlej. Proceeding from Firozpur across the Punjab at an angle to the Sikh line of march, it came up with Sher Singh at Rámnagar, and there inflicted on him a severe check. The Sikh army, consisting of 30,000 men and 60 guns, made a stand at Chiliánwála, where an indecisive and sanguinary battle was fought on the 13th January 1849. Two or three days after the action, Sher Singh was joined by his father Chattar Singh, bringing with him Sikh reinforcements, and a thousand Afghán horse. General Gough awaited the arrival of the column under General Whish (set free by the fall of Múltán on the 28th January), and then followed up the Sikhs from Chiliánwála to Gujrát, where the last and decisive battle was fought on the 22nd February, the Sikhs being totally defeated with the loss of 60 guns. The Afghán garrison of Pesháwar were chased back to their hills, the Amír Dost Muhammad himself narrowly escaping capture. The remnants of the Sikh army and the rebel Sardárs surrendered at Ráwal Pindi on the 14th March, and henceforth the entire Punjab became a Province of British India.

The formal annexation was proclaimed at Lahore on the 29th March 1849, on which day terms were offered to, and accepted by, the young Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh, he himself receiving in return an annuity of £50,000 a year. The following were the terms of the cession:—'1st. His Highness the Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh shall resign for himself, his heirs, and his successors, all right, title, and claim to the sovereignty of the Punjab, or to any sovereign power whatever. 2nd. All the property of the State, of whatever description and wheresoever found, shall be confiscated to the Honourable East India Company, in part payment of the debt due by the State of Lahore to the British Government, and of the expenses of the war. 3rd. The gem called the Koh-i-núr, which was taken from Sháh Shujá-ul-mulk by Mahárájá Ranjít Singh, shall be

surrendered by the Mahárájá of Lahore to the Queen of England. 4th. His Highness Dhulíp Singh shall receive from the Honourable East India Company, for the support of himself, his relatives, and the servants of the State, a pension of not less than four, and not exceeding five, *lákhs* of Company's rupees per annum. 5th. His Highness shall be treated with respect and honour. He shall retain the title of Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh, Bahadúr, and he shall continue to receive during his life such portion of the above-named pension as may be allotted to himself personally, provided he shall remain obedient to the British Government, and shall reside at such place as the Governor-General of India may select.' His Highness has for long resided in England, where he has purchased estates, married, and settled down as an English nobleman.

The Punjab, after being annexed in 1849, was first governed by a Board of Administration. It was subsequently made a Chief Commissionership, divided into Districts upon the ordinary English model. After the Mutiny it was erected into a Lieutenant-Governorship, the head-quarters of the Lieutenant-Governor being fixed at Lahore.

The Mutiny.—At the time of the outbreak of the Mutiny at Delhi in 1857, there were in the Punjab the following troops:—Hindustánís, 35,000; Punjábi Irregulars, 13,000; Europeans, 10,000; there were also 9000 military police. The Europeans consisted of 12 regiments, of whom no less than 7 were either at Pesháwar or in the hills north of Ambála, leaving only 5 regiments to hold the country from the Indus to the Sutlej. The news of the massacre at Delhi reached Lahore on the 12th of May. The Chief Commissioner was absent at Ráwal Pindi, and Mr. (now Sir R.) Montgomery was the chief civil officer present. There had not been wanting premonitory signs that the sepoys were disaffected and likely to rise; and accordingly, on the 13th May, 3000 Native troops were successfully disarmed at Mián Mír. At the same time European troops were thrown into the forts of Govindgarh and Phillaur, the first important as commanding Amritsar, the second as containing a large arsenal from which subsequently were served the munitions of war for the siege of Delhi. On the 14th May the arsenal at Firozpur was secured; the sepoys here mutinied on the following day, and escaped without punishment. On the 21st of the same month the 55th Native Infantry rose at Mardán and fled to independent territory; many were killed in pursuit, and the remainder were destroyed by the hillmen. On the 7th and 8th of June the Native troops at Jálandhar broke and escaped to Delhi. In the first week of July, the sepoys at Jehlam and Siálkot mutinied; they were destroyed, as were the 26th Native Infantry, who rose at Lahore on the 30th July, and the 51st Native Infantry, who mutinied at Pesháwar on the 28th August.

Simultaneously with the vigorous suppression of open mutiny, 13,000 Native troops were disarmed without resistance during June and July. While the Hindustání troops were thus disposed of, the despatch of reinforcements to Delhi, an object of paramount importance, proceeded without a break. About the 17th of May it had become apparent that the Punjab did not sympathize with the movement in Hindustán, and that a good spirit prevailed in the Punjábi troops. It was therefore safe to augment them; and 18 new regiments were raised in the Province during the later months of the year. As these forces were being enrolled to supply the place of those who marched down to Delhi, the stream of reinforcements was steadily maintained. Four regiments from the European garrison of the Punjab formed the greater portion of the force that first marched upon Delhi. Next followed two wings of European regiments of infantry. Then a considerable force of Native troops was despatched, including the Guides, two regiments of Punjab cavalry, a body of Punjab horse, two regiments of Punjab infantry, and a body of 1200 pioneers raised from the Mazbi Sikhs; 7000 men, forming the contingent of the cis-Sutlej chiefs of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha, accompanied the regular troops to the siege. An irregular force of 1000 men was also detached to clear the western part of the Delhi territory. Waggon trains were organized from Múltán and Firozpur *viâ* Ambála to Delhi. Siege trains, treasure, stores, and transport animals were poured down from the Punjab for the besieging force.

Finally, in August one last effort was to be made to send reinforcements, in spite of the risk run in denuding the Province of Europeans and loyal troops. The need for aiding the force at Delhi was, however, imperative; it was therefore resolved to send Brigadier-General John Nicholson with the moveable column and every European who could be spared. Two half regiments of European infantry, the 52nd Foot, and three regiments of Punjab infantry were despatched. These were followed by a siege train from Firozpur, a wing of the 1st Balúch Regiment arrived from Sind, and a contingent 2000 strong from the Mahárájá of Kashmír. There then remained only 4500 Europeans (including sick) to hold the Punjab.

The crisis had now come. If Delhi were taken speedily, all was well; if Delhi were not taken without delay, there would be a struggle for European dominion and existence in the Punjab itself. The next few weeks after the departure of Nicholson's column were weeks of anxious suspense, in which all eyes were turned to Delhi. The first symptoms of the wavering faith of the people in the British power appeared in local outbreaks at Murree in the north, and in the wild and barren tracts south of Lahore, between the Rávi and Sutlej. Both were, however, soon put down, and the fall of Delhi on the 14th

September put an end to all further cause for apprehension. The first sign that the mass of the inhabitants had regained confidence was that the Sikhs of the Mánjha, or the tract between the Rávi and the Sutlej rivers, who had hitherto held aloof, came forward for enlistment in the new levies.

The loyal action of the chiefs had an important bearing on keeping the population steady during the crisis. The Rájá of Jínd was actually the first man, European or Native, who took the field against the mutineers; and his contingent collected supplies in advance for the English troops marching upon Delhi, besides rendering excellent service during the siege. The Rájás of Patiála and Nábha also sent contingents for field service; and with the exception of the Nawáb of Baháwalpur, who did not stir, every chief in the Punjab, so far as he could, aided the English in preserving order and in suppressing rebellion. Rewards in the shape of grants of territory were made to the chiefs of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha, and a large *zamíndári* estate in Oudh was conferred upon the Rájá of Kapúrthalá.

Since the Mutiny, the Punjab has made rapid progress in commercial and industrial wealth. The first year after the suppression of the rebellion is remarkable for the commencement of the first line of railway in the Punjab from Amritsar to Múltán (February 1859), and for the admission of water into the Bári Doáb Canal. With the exception of punitive military expeditions against marauding hill tribes, the history of the Punjab has been one of uninterrupted progress. Canals have spread irrigation over its thirsty fields; railways have opened new means of communication for its surplus produce; and British superintendence, together with the security afforded by our firm rule, has developed its resources with astonishing rapidity. In January 1876, the Prince of Wales paid a visit to the Punjab. The year 1877 was marked by the Imperial Assemblage, and the gathering of all the Punjab feudatories at Delhi, in common with the other chiefs of India.

During the late Afghán campaigns, the resources of the Punjab were fully taxed, as it formed practically the base of operations for the armies operating in Northern Afghánistán. In the earlier phase of the war, contingents from the chiefs of Patiála, Baháwalpur, Jínd, Nábha, Kapúrthalá, Farídkot, and Náhan joined the British forces, and performed excellent service. The years during which the war lasted, from November 1878 to the end of 1880, were years of some scarcity, owing to deficient rainfall; there was considerable sickness, and trade towards the west was affected by the war; but the operations in the field called everywhere for increased labour, high profits were made by many sections of the community, and the simultaneous construction of the railway towards Kohát and Pesháwar, which was pushed forward with much energy, afforded ample employ-

ment to the needy; and the result of all these causes was the general prosperity of the people. With the close of the war, the Province resumed its normal course, and has prospered without interruption. The most important features of this period are, in November 1882, the opening of the Sirhind Canal, which is destined to irrigate a vast extent of country; and in June of the same year, the completion of direct railway communication with Pesháwar.

The territories now under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab comprise:—(1) The Punjab proper, west of the Beas, annexed in March 1849, on the close of the second Sikh war. (2) The Jálandhar Doáb and the hill District of Kángra, which were ceded to the British Government by the treaty of Lahore concluded in March 1846, after the termination of the first Sikh war. (3) The country east of the river Sutlej, formerly designated the cis-Sutlej States, and including—(*a*) the possessions of Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh of Lahore, on the left bank of the Sutlej, which were annexed to the British territories in December 1845; (*b*) such of the States taken under the protection of the British in 1808–09 as subsequently lapsed on the death of their chiefs without heirs, or were confiscated and brought under British administration in January 1847, in consequence of the misconduct of their chiefs in the first Sikh war; (*c*) the hill District of Simla, a portion of which was acquired after the Gúrkha war of 1814–16, and the remainder subsequently obtained by lapse, purchase, or exchange for other territory. (4) The Delhi territory west of the river Jumna, which was transferred from the Government of the North-Western Provinces to that of the Punjab in February 1858, and separated into the two Divisions of Delhi and Hissár.

Form of Administration.—On the annexation of the Punjab in March 1849, a Board of Administration for its affairs was constituted, to which the Commissioners of the trans-Sutlej and cis-Sutlej States were also made subordinate. The Board was abolished in February 1853, and its powers and functions were vested in a Chief Commissioner, subordinate to whom a Judicial Commissioner and a Financial Commissioner were appointed. After the transfer of the Delhi territory from the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab and its dependencies were constituted a Lieutenant-Governorship from the 1st January 1859,—Sir John Lawrence, who had hitherto been the Chief Commissioner, being appointed the first Lieutenant-Governor. The succeeding Lieutenant-Governors have been, Sir R. Montgomery, Sir D. M'Leod, Sir H. Durand, Sir H. Davies, Sir R. Egerton, and Sir C. U. Aitchison, the present (1886) Lieutenant-Governor.

In 1866, a Chief Court, consisting of two judges, a barrister and a civilian, was substituted for the Judicial Commissioner, and was constituted the final appellate authority in criminal and civil cases, with

powers also of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences, and of original civil jurisdiction in special cases. In 1869, a third judge, a civilian, was added to the Court.

Subordinate to the Chief Court and Financial Commissioner, as the chief judicial and revenue authorities of the Province, are the ten Commissioners of Divisions, the Settlement Commissioner, the Civil and Sessions Judge of Peshávar, and two additional Commissioners. Next follows the District staff composed of thirty-two Deputy Commissioners of Districts, with a varying staff of Judicial Assistants, of Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, *tahsíldárs*, *náib tahsíldárs*, and *munsifs*. Each District is divided into *tahsíls*, which form the territorial unit of division for revenue and judicial purposes.

The Punjab Government has no local legislature. Whenever it appears necessary, the Lieutenant-Governor proposes draft Bills for the consideration of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India, or submits to the Governor-General in Council drafts of Regulations for the peace and better government of any Districts to which the provisions of Statute 33 Victoria, chapter 3, have been extended by the Secretary of State for India, and such Regulations, if approved by the Governor-General in Council and duly published, have the force of law. At present the Statute has been extended to the frontier Districts comprised in the Peshávar and Deraját Divisions, and to the *parganá* of Spiti, a remote tract among the Himálayan ranges, belonging to the District of Kángra.

Population.—The first Census of the Punjab was taken in 1855, and disclosed a total population over the area comprising the British Province, as at present constituted, of 15,161,321 persons. A second enumeration in 1868 returned the total population at 17,609,518. The last Census in 1881 showed a total population of 18,850,437. On the whole, the increase, namely 3,689,116, or at the rate of 24·3 per cent., in the 26 years between 1855 and 1881, is not nearly so large as might have been expected in a country not long rescued from something very like anarchy, and brought under civilised rule. The increase between the first and the second enumerations amounted to 16·1 per cent., while the rate of increase for the thirteen years ending with the Census of 1881 was only 7·1 per cent. The Census of 1868 was taken after seven years of exceptional prosperity, while that of 1881 followed three years of sickness, war, and agricultural distress. The rate of increase has been highest in the sparsely-peopled and thinly-cultivated tracts of the south-west, where the excavation of inundation canals has attracted emigrants from the more populated portions of the Province as well as from States and Provinces outside the Punjab. The population of the submontane Districts, too dense to be supported in comfort from the

produce of its cultivated lands, has actually decreased; while in the Himálayas the statistics have undergone little or no change. The Native States in the Punjab were enumerated for the first time in 1881, and returned a total population of 3,861,683, giving a gross population for both British and Feudatory territory of 22,712,120 persons.

The following are the principal Census details of the population of the 32 British Districts comprising the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab in 1881. Separate statistics for each District have been given in the table on pp. 245, 246. Area of the Province, 106,632 square miles; number of towns, 238; and of villages, 34,086; number of houses, 3,517,008, namely, occupied, 2,706,914, and unoccupied, 810,094. Number of families, 4,128,440. Total population, 18,850,437, namely, males 10,210,053, and females 8,640,384; proportion of males in total population, 54·2 per cent. Average density of the population (excluding the little tract forming Simla District), 177 persons per square mile, varying from 47 in Dera Ismáil Khán to 597 in Jálandhar District. The population is most dense in the Jumna valley, the Jálandhar Doáb, the upper portion of the Bári Doáb, as well as along the banks of the great rivers, and in the submontane tract. It grows sparser in the hilly north-western Districts, and in the Deraját; while the central plateaux between the great rivers of the western plains are almost uninhabited, and the wild mountainous glens of Spiti and Láhul support only a few scattered families, at the rate of one or two persons only to the square mile. Average number of towns and villages, ·32 per square mile; persons per town or village, 549, or excluding towns, 481. Average number of occupied houses, 25·4 per square mile; persons per occupied house, 6·9.

Classified according to sex and age, the population comprises—under 15 years of age, males 3,928,577, and females 3,314,065; total children, 7,242,642, or 38·4 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 6,281,476, and females 5,326,319; total adults, 11,607,795, or 61·6 per cent.

Religion.—The Census of 1881 thus classifies the population of the 32 British Districts of the Punjab, according to religion—Muhammadans number 10,525,150, or 55·8 per cent.; Hindus, 7,130,528, or 37·8 per cent.; Sikhs, 1,121,004, or 5·9 per cent.; Jains, 35,826; Christians, 33,420; Buddhists, 2864; Pársís, 462; and 'others' and unspecified, 1183.

The Muhammadans are most numerous in the Peshávar Division, where they form 92·2 per cent. of the whole population; and in the Deraját, Ráwal Pindi and Múltán Divisions, which are largely peopled by tribes of Afghán or Balúchi descent. They become less numerous in the eastern Punjab, and form a very small element in the tract

between the Sutlej and the Jumna, amounting to only 23 per cent. in Delhi District, and 14 per cent. in Rohtak. In the remote Kángra valleys, the faith of Islám is professed by only 5 per cent. of the inhabitants.

Of the Punjab Muhammadans by race, as distinguished from religious classification, the most numerous are the Patháns, who were returned at 838,233 in 1881. Shaikhs come next with 327,928; followed by Balúchis, 299,962; Sayyids, 225,446; Kashmírís, 178,124; and Mughals, 95,361. But nearly every caste, originally Hindu, now contains a more or less large Muhammadan element, the result of conversions in the earlier days of Musalmán invasion. Even among the Bráhmans, 3236 are returned as Muhammadans. But the bulk of converted Hindus are found in the Ját and Rájput tribes. The Muhammadan Játs, who form the most numerous class in the Province, number 1,656,673, while the Muhammadan Rájputs are returned at 1,110,591. The remaining Muhammadan classes and tribes include the following: — Arain, 674,742; Awán, 532,456; Juláha, 511,537; Gújar, 431,195; Chúhra, 388,978; Muchí, 321,650; Kumbhár, 269,760; Tarkhán, 248,029; Telí, 225,873; Mirási, 176,344; Nái, 172,467; Lohár, 166,756; Machhí, 144,116; Kassáb, 88,357; Jhinwar, 125,887; Meo, 115,399; Dhobí, 96,118; Fákír, 93,972; Khojá, 61,295; Maniár, 56,852; Dogar, 49,244; Barwála, 48,342; Mallah, 46,845; and Tanáolí, 41,388. The Ghakkars, supposed to be an aboriginal tribe, now Muhammadans, are returned as numbering 25,788, principally in Ráwal Pindi, where they compose the gentry of the hill population.

The Hindu creed musters the greatest proportion of followers in the cis-Sutlej Divisions of Delhi and Hissár, and among the primitive mountaineers of Kángra. It sinks from 84 per cent. in Rohtak District and 75 in Delhi, to 43 in Jálandhar, 29 in Amritsar, and 21 in Lahore. In the extreme north-west it yields entirely to the Muhammadan element, falling as low as 10 per cent. in Ráwal Pindi, 7 in Pesháwar, and 5 in Kohát.

The Sikh faith forms the distinguishing feature of the central and eastern portions of the Province in its religious aspect. Though numerically weak, it is socially and politically of the highest importance, as the Sikhs constituted the dominant class at the period of annexation, and still compose the mass of the gentry in the region between the Five Rivers. They gather most thickly around the sacred city of Amritsar, in which District they amount to 24 per cent. of the people; and in Jálandhar, Lahore, Ludhiána, and Firozpur, where they compose from 11 to 26 per cent. The number is much smaller in the hilly north-western Districts and the cis-Sutlej tracts, while the Sikhs almost disappear in the trans-Indus Divisions of the Deraját

and Pesháwar, as well as in the valley of the Jumna. Even in the southern angle of the Punjab Proper, around Múltán and Muzaffargarh, the Sikh element forms a mere fraction in the population. The Sikhs are famous for their personal bravery, and their religion prompts them to hold life of little importance, one of their strictest sects being known as Akali or 'immortal.' They are very illiterate, and Ranjít Singh could neither read nor write. Their sacred books bear the name of the *Granth*.

Of the total Hindu and Sikh population (including Jains), Bráhmans number 815,459; Rájputs, 325,216; Khattrís, 377,710; and Baniyás, 316,282. The Hindu Játs, however, form the most numerous section of the Hindu population, as their Muhammadan brethren do of the Muhammadan population, and are returned in the Census Report at 1,907,737. The other castes (Hindu and Sikh) include—Chamár, 793,964; Chúhra, 550,077; Arora, 537,330; Tarkhán, 259,976; Jhinwár, 241,890; Ghirat, 157,726; Kumbhár, 151,828; Sainí, 139,245; Gújar, 122,101; Nái, 116,263; Ahír, 112,512; Sonár, 105,518; Lohár, 97,813; Kanet, 74,552; Rathí, 52,733; and Málí, 51,985.

The Buddhists of the Punjab are almost entirely confined to the Tibetan tract of Spiti, in the Kúlu Sub-division of Kángra District, where they number 2860, out of a total returned at 2864.

The Christian population, numbering 33,420, comprises—European British subjects, 10,761; other Europeans, including Americans, Australians, and Africans, 17,015; Eurasians, 1821; and Natives, 3823. By sect, the Church of England numbers 18,911 adherents; Roman Catholic Church, 8021; Presbyterian Church of Scotland, 1619; Baptists, 697; Wesleyans, 361; Episcopal Church of Scotland, 96; Protestants unspecified by sect, 1913; Armenian Church, 33; other denominations, and unspecified, 1769.

The Punjab presents two very distinct types of social structure. In the eastern plains and throughout the Himálayan region the institution of caste obtains in its proper form, distinctions being based primarily upon occupation, and among the land-owning classes upon political importance, and the tribe being a mere sub-division of the caste. Occupations are by presumption hereditary, and different castes cannot intermarry. But throughout the western plains and on the Indus frontier, tribe and not caste is the social unit among the land-owning classes; the latter, in the widest sense of the term, either having dwindled to a mere tradition of origin, or being a mere ethnic distinction. Here, too, the only restriction upon occupation is that springing from the pollution attaching to certain callings; while the chief restrictions upon intermarriage depend upon social position rather than upon tribe or caste. The cis-Indus Salt Range occupies an intermediate position between

these two types. The distinction between them is not merely due to the difference of religion which marks the great mass of the population in the east and west; for in the eastern portion of the Province, Islám has, if anything, tended to tighten the bonds of caste, and the convert retains unimpaired the standing, name, and prejudices of his caste, while thoughout the Punjab the life of the people is regulated by tribal and social rule and custom rather than by any prescriptions of religion. The explanation must be sought in the fact that while the society in the Eastern Punjab is modelled upon the type which prevails throughout the greater part of India, the people of the west have already followed the example of the frontier nations with whom they are in contact,—nations whose tribal and social restrictions are far more loose than those of the inhabitants of India.

The 32 British Districts of the Punjab contained, in 1881, 21 towns with a population exceeding 20,000, namely—(1) DELHI, the ancient capital of the Mughal Empire, 173,393; (2) AMRITSAR (Umritsur), the metropolis of the Sikh religion, 151,896; (3) LAHORE, the modern seat of Government for the Province, 149,369; (4) PESHAWAR, the chief station on the north-western frontier, 79,982; (5) MULTAN (Mooltan), the principal commercial centre of the southern Punjab, 68,674; (6) AMBALA (Umballa), 67,463; (7) RAWAL PINDI, 52,975; (8) JALANDHAR (Jullunder), 52,119; (9) SIALKOT, 45,762; (10) LUDHIANA, 44,163; (11) FIROZPUR (Ferozepore), 39,570; (12) BHIWANI, 33,762; (13) PANIPAT, 25,022; (14) BATALA, 24,281; (15) RIWARI, 23,972; (16) KARNAL, 23,133; (17) GUJRANWALA, 22,884; (18) DERA GHAZI KHAN, 22,309; (19) DERA ISMAIL KHAN, 22,164; (20) HUSHIARPUR, 21,363; and (21) JEHLAM, 21,107.

The Census also returns 111 towns with a population between 5000 and 20,000; and 106 smaller towns, either as civil stations, cantonments, or municipalities. The total urban population of these 238 towns and stations amounts to 2,431,357, or 12·9 per cent. of the population of British territory in the Punjab. The Province contained 202 municipalities in 1883–84, of which 8 are of the first, 20 of the second, and 174 of the third class. Total municipal income (1883–84), £305,559, or an average of 2s. 11¼d. per head of the population (2,144,379) within municipal limits. SIMLA, population 13,258, the summer capital of India, stands on an isolated patch of British territory among the mountains of the north-eastern border; and MARRI (Murree), in Ráwal Pindi District, population 2489, forms the great hill sanitarium for the western half of the Province; while between them, the hill stations of DHARMSALA in Kángra and DALHOUSIE in Gurdaspur, are favourite resorts during the summer months.

Of the 34,324 towns and villages in British territory in 1881, the Census returns 11,937 as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 11,879

from two to five hundred; 6348 from five hundred to a thousand; 2954 from one to two thousand; 693 from two to three thousand; 349 from three to five thousand; 115 from five to ten thousand; 20 from ten to fifteen thousand; 8 from fifteen to twenty thousand; 13 from twenty to fifty thousand; while 8 contain upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants.

The Punjab 'Village.'—The 'village' of the Census Report includes, as regards British territory, all the population living within the area of the *mauzá*, or village unit of revenue administration. Throughout the greater part of the Province this is a perfectly natural and homogeneous unit, and embraces the lands owned and cultivated by the members of a single village community who, with their attendant traders, priests, and menials, live in one main homestead, though they occasionally occupy also one or more small hamlets situated in the outlying fields, where certain families or parts of families live more or less permanently for the convenience of being close to their work.

But on the great pasture lands of the Múltán Division and in the sandy plains of the Sind-Ságar *doáb*, the large and compact village communities of the Eastern Punjab are almost unknown. The people here have only lately abandoned a nomad life, and are still largely pastoral in their habits. Much of the land has been brought under cultivation, often since the introduction of our rule, by local notables holding grants from Government who have collected cultivators from diverse sources and settled them here and there in small bodies each in a separate homestead, or by individuals who have acquired property by breaking up waste or by the construction of irrigation works; and the local hollows, in which alone grass and water or cultivable land are in many parts to be found, are occupied by small communities consisting each of only a few families and living at great distances from each other. So in the trans-Jehlam and frontier tracts, where Patháns, Balúchis, Ghakkars, and other dominant races have subjugated but not expelled a peaceful agricultural population, the latter are similarly scattered over the country in small detached homesteads surrounding the central stronghold of their conquerors; while where the tribal organization exists in full vitality and the land is held and cultivated by the dominant race, there is no intermediate step between the clan which occupies a considerable tract of country, and its constituent families of which every two or three form a separate group and inhabit a separate hamlet.

In these cases the hamlet is usually too small to be recognised as a unit; and the boundaries of the 'village' embrace an area, often enormous, over which a scanty population is widely scattered in small communities having no connection with one another beyond the mere fact of their common inclusion in an artificial unit based upon considerations of

administrative convenience. The 'village' of the Census tables is in many cases largest where the unit of habitation is smallest. Thus, there are in Dera Ismáil Khán three village areas, each including a population of more than 5000, but of which the inhabitants live in numerous scattered hamlets no one of which contains more than 350 souls. So again, there is in Bannu a 'village' of 2000 inhabitants which is split up into not less than 43 distinct hamlets, and covers an area of 101 square miles; while the 'town' of Láwa in Jehlam includes an area of 141 square miles dotted over with innumerable tiny hamlets surrounding a central town, and containing a total population of over 6000 souls; and in the hills even more striking cases occur. There are in the British Districts 32 places of more than 5000 inhabitants which have, by reason of the scattered nature of their population, been classed as villages and not as towns.

Occupations of the People.—The adult male population of the British Districts of the Punjab is returned in the Census under the following seven main headings, with a vast number of sub-orders too numerous for specification here:—Class 1. Professional, including all persons engaged in the administration of the Province, 114,862; army, 62,887; learned professions, literature, art or science, 142,596: total, 320,345. Class 2. Domestic and menial, including boarding and lodging house keepers, 4827; and attendants, domestic servants, menials, etc., 324,135: total, 328,962. Class 3. Commercial, including bankers, merchants, and traders, 76,021; and all carriers, messengers, porters, etc., 102,456: total, 178,477. Class 4. Agricultural, including all cultivators, fruit and market gardeners, and flower dealers, also graziers, 3,074,183; and persons engaged about animals, such as horse, cattle, and sheep breeders and dealers, farriers, hunters, fishermen, etc., 22,056: total, 3,096,239. Class 5. Commercial, including workers in art and mechanical productions, 37,833; workers and dealers in textile fabrics, 684,929; workers and dealers in articles of food and drink, 280,358; workers and dealers in animal substances, such as hides, leather, etc., 34,481; workers and dealers in vegetable substances, such as oil-men, carpenters, workers in mat, straw, etc., 217,458; workers and dealers in minerals, 203,420: total, 1,458,479. Class 6. Indefinite and non-productive, including general labourers, 270,380; persons of rank and property, 12,813; and of no true occupation, 262,471: total, 545,664. Class 7. Occupation not specified, 353,309.

Agriculture.—The tillage of the Western Punjab extends along the foot of the boundary mountains, and stretches in long strips by the side of the great arterial rivers. But cultivation is more extensive in the central and southern portion of the Eastern Plains, which, while comprising only 15 per cent. of the total area of the Province, comprise no less than 27 per cent. of its cultivated area, or more than the

whole of the Western Plains, with their rivers and canals. Excluding Native States, and the semi-independent possessions of the Nawáb of Teri in Kohát, and the Nawáb of Tanáwal in Hazára, the total assessed area of the 32 British Districts in the Punjab in 1883–84 is returned at 64,139,592 acres, of which 23,518,686 acres are under cultivation; 5,867,214 acres are grazing lands; 20,488,941 acres are cultivable, but still untilled; and 14,264,751 acres are absolutely barren.

The agricultural year is divisible into the *rabí* or spring, and the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. The former is the more important, the principal crop being wheat, covering an area in 1875 of 6,282,687 acres, and in 1883–84 of 7,209,721 acres; gram, 1,604,132 acres in 1875, and 1,853,769 acres in 1883–84; barley, 1,818,433 acres in 1875, and 1,681,849 acres in 1883–84. Oil-seeds are largely grown, occupying 594,309 acres of the *rabí* area in 1883–84. Peas and other pulses occupy a small area, and tobacco and vegetables are grown on garden plots. Tea cultivation is followed with success chiefly in Kángra District, the area having extended from 5623 acres in 1875 to 9600 acres in 1883–84. The area occupied by the principal *rabí* crops has increased from 10,961,257 acres in 1875 to 12,502,416 acres in 1883–84. Rice cultivation, which forms the chief staple of the *kharíf* crop, has decreased of late years, having fallen from 802,014 acres in 1875 to 569,808 acres in 1883–84. Millets (*joár* and *bájra*) were grown on 4,613,720 acres in 1875, and 4,945,850 acres in 1883–84; Indian corn, 1,039,594 acres in 1875, and 1,233,718 acres in 1883–84; and pulses, 1,604,006 acres in 1875, and 1,130,090 acres in 1883–84. Cotton cultivation increased from 651,150 acres in 1875 to 802,534 acres in 1883–84. Sugar-cane was grown on 344,993 acres in 1875, and 348,141 acres in 1883–84. Total area occupied by the principal *kharíf* crops, 9,610,166 acres in 1875, and 9,994,749 acres in 1883–84.

The methods of agriculture still retain their primitive simplicity, scarcely differing from those in use during the Vedic period. Artificial irrigation is common, and is rapidly extending, about 25 per cent. of the cultivated area being irrigated either from Government canals or private works. The Bári Doáb, the Western Jumna, and the Sutlej inundation canals supply water to a large area; while the Sirhind Canal, the main line of which was opened in November 1882, and its branches completed in 1883–84, has already added greatly to the fertility of the dry cis-Sutlej tract. The Swát River Canal was opened in 1884–85. These canals will be more fully referred to in a subsequent paragraph. Manure is applied only in the vicinity of villages, and to the best crops, such as sugar-cane, cotton, and rice, when grown near wells. Rotation of crops is confined chiefly to manured soils, where, after a rich crop, poorer and poorer staples are sown successively until the manure is exhausted; when another dressing becomes necessary,

followed by a similar cycle of crops. For example, in the cis-Sutlej tract, sugar-cane is succeeded by wheat, and wheat by cotton, so that the manure once laid down suffices for three years.

Cultivation is steadily and quickly advancing in the Punjab. The area under tillage rose from 20 to 23½ millions of acres in the fifteen years ending 1883–84. The irrigation by Government canals rose during the same period from 1⅓ to considerably over 1¾ millions of acres (increase more than half a million); irrigation from wells, water-courses, and other private works, from 4⅔ to 5⅓ millions of acres (increase, say ¾ million). Total increase in irrigation during fifteen years, nearly 1¼ million acres, or about 17 per cent. Not only did the general area under tillage increase, but the area under the more valuable crops increased in an even greater ratio. Thus (in round figures) the area under wheat was 5½ million acres in 1869, and 7¼ millions in 1883–84; oil-seeds in 1869 occupied nearly half a million acres, and in 1884 upwards of three-quarters of a million acres; sugar-cane, which in 1869 covered 325,831 acres, in 1884 had increased to 348,141 acres; indigo rose within the same period from 32,444 to 128,251 acres; and tea from 5521 to 9600 acres. The selling price of land rose from 18 years' purchase, calculated on the land revenue demand of 1869, to 25½ years' purchase in 1879. The average incidence of the land revenue per cultivated acre fell during the same period from 25¾ pence to 23 pence.

Rents are paid both in money and kind, and the following return of rent rates prevailing in 1883–84 is based, in the latter case, on an estimate of the money value of the landlord's share. The following statement shows the average rates prevailing throughout the Province for lands growing different descriptions of crops:—Wheat land (irrigated), from 7s. 4d. to 19s. 10d. an acre—unirrigated, 4s. 5½d. to 13s. 1d. an acre; inferior grains (irrigated), 4s. 1½d. to 13s. an acre; rice, from 7s. 9½d. to £1, 2s. 8d. an acre; cotton, from 6s. to 17s. an acre; sugar-cane, from 19s. 8d. to £2, 9s. 10d. an acre; indigo, from 7s. 3d. to 19s. 7d. an acre; oil-seeds (irrigated), 5s. 9½d. to 14s. 6⅝d. an acre—unirrigated, 4s. to 9s. 9½d. an acre. The average out-turn of produce throughout the Province is thus returned:—Wheat, 659 lbs. per acre; rice, 730 lbs.; barley, 677 lbs.; *bájra*, 345 lbs.; *joár*, 323 lbs.; cotton, 177 lbs.; tobacco, 845 lbs.; unrefined sugar (*gur*), 761 lbs.; and tea, 202 lbs. Wages and prices have both risen greatly through the action of railways. The average prices of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1884:—Wheat, 21¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 2d. per cwt.; barley, 33¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4¼d. per cwt.; gram, 30¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 1d. per cwt.; *joár*, 32½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5½d. per cwt.; rice, 7½ *sers* per rupee, or 15s. per cwt. Wages of unskilled

labour range from 3½d. to 5¾d., and of skilled labour from 8d. to 1s. 2d. per diem.

Horse and cattle breeding are carried on to a considerable extent, both by Government at stud depôts and by private individuals. The Government Horse-Breeding Department maintained in 1883–84, 190 horse and 167 donkey stallions. Horse fairs were held at ten towns in the Punjab in 1883–84, at which 7675 animals were exhibited, and prizes to the extent of £1135 were awarded. Twelve cattle fairs were held in the same year, at which fees to the extent of £5049 were levied, in return for an expenditure of £1329 on prizes and for other purposes. The demands made for carriage during the Afghán campaign, a succession of bad seasons, drought, and cattle disease for a time seriously affected the number of cattle and beasts of burthen in the Province; and although a return of better seasons has occurred of late years, the last return of agricultural stock still shows the number of horses, cows, and bullocks to be below what they were in 1868. The figures for 1883–84 return — Cows and bullocks, 6,707,904; horses, 86,228; ponies, 38,456; donkeys, 351,890; sheep and goats, 4,906,883; pigs, 65,955; and camels, 174,753. Carts numbered 100,669.

Forests.—The Forest Department of the Punjab administers an area of 4694 square miles in British territory, or in Native States of which the forests have been leased to Government. The latter, which are situated principally in Chamba and Bashahr, are managed in accordance with agreements made with the chiefs of those States. The former are subject to the Forest Act (VII. of 1878), the Hazára Forest Regulation (II. of 1879), and in a few cases to rules for the conservancy of hill Districts, which were published in 1855. A further area of 13,000 square miles, covered more or less with inferior forest growth, is managed by the District Deputy Commissioners, chiefly as grazing ground. Efforts have been made to secure the lease of a larger forest area in the Simla Hill States, but without success. The above area is divided into ten Forest Divisions, namely, Hazára, Ráwal Pindi, Jehlam, Gujránwála, Chamba, Lahore, Beas, Bashahr, Phillaur, and Múltán. Of the total forest area of 4694 square miles, 1228 square miles are 'reserved,' 311 square miles are 'protected,' and 3155 square miles are 'unreserved.'

The forests of the Punjab may be roughly classified as follows:—(1) The deodar (Cedrus Deodara) and other pine forests of the higher Himálayan ranges in Hazára, Chamba, Kúlu, and Bashahr; (2) the *chil* (Pinus longifolia and Pinus excelsa) forests in the Siwáliks and other hill tracts in Kángra, Hushiárpur, Gurdáspur and Ráwal Pindi Districts; (3) the Chánga Mánga plantation and such of the *shisham* blocks in the Indus valley as have escaped the action of the river of recent years; (4) the small *sál* (Shorea robusta) forest at Kalesar in Ambála District; (5) the plain *rakhs*, situated principally in the *bár*

tracts, and producing chiefly *kikar* (Acacia arabica), *jand* (Prosopis spicigera), *jál* (Salvadora persica and S. oleoides), *phulái* (Acacia modesta), *karíl* (Capparis aphylla), *ber* (Zizyphus Jujuba), and *dhák* (Butea frondosa). The working of the Forest Department in 1883–84 resulted in gross receipts amounting to £91,017, against an expenditure of £65,314, including a sum of £6000 paid to the Mahárájá of Kashmír, leaving a surplus or net profit amounting to £25,703.

Canals.—The canal system of the Punjab consists of the Bári Doáb, Western Jumna, Sirhind and Swát River Canals, all of which are perennial; and a number of inundation channels, known as the upper Sutlej series, the lower Sutlej and Chenáb series, the Indus series, the Muzaffargarh series, and three inundation canals in Sháhpur District, which belong to, but are not administered by, the Irrigation Department. The total capital outlay, exclusive of contributions from the States of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha, amounted at the close of 1883–84 to £5,033,284. The expenditure during the year amounted to £282,524. Of the total outlay, £4,697,538 represents the capital expenditure on canals in operation, and £335,746 on canals still under construction. The gross revenue of the year from all sources amounted to £428,416, and the working expenses to £197,033; the net revenue was therefore £231,383, yielding a return of 4·6 per cent. on the total outlay, and nearly 5 per cent. on the capital of the canals open. Up to the close of 1883–84 the net revenue from the canals had exceeded the interest charges by £2,074,560. The total area irrigated by these canals in 1883–84 was 1,652,068 acres. Of this only 5030 acres was irrigated by the Sirhind Canal, the main channel of which was only opened at the end of 1882. The Swát River Canal was not opened till 1885, and has not yet been utilized for irrigation.

Land Tenures.—The following account of the prevailing land tenures of the Province is quoted in a slightly condensed form, and with a few additions and alterations, from the *Punjab Administration Report* for 1872–73, pp. 9–16:—

According to the statistics of 1872–73, the Punjab has an area of 65,283,050 acres, or nearly 102,005 square miles. [Area in 1883–84, 106,772 square miles.] Returns of tenure exist for 30 Districts, being wanting only in the case of Kohát and Hazára; but the Jhang return must be rejected, as regards area at least, as it shows the entire area of the District, much of which is waste land the property of Government, or held by private owners. There remain 29 Districts, with an area of 90,462 square miles. In these Districts, 1301 villages, with an area of 4446 square miles, are held by 3579 proprietors of the landlord class; and 29,558 villages, with an area of 63,039 square miles, by 1,955,928 cultivating proprietors. Taking the Province as a whole, it may be

estimated that between one-fifth and one-sixth of the area is the property of Government; while upwards of four-fifths belongs to private owners. The greater part of the area belonging to Government is, however, little better than an arid prairie, and could not profitably be brought under cultivation without the aid of extensive works of irrigation. Some of the more favourably situated portions are preserved as forest or grazing lands, and others are held under lease from Government for purposes of cultivation; but almost the entire cultivated area of the Province is included in the lands of private owners.

These lands are held subject to the payment of land revenue to the State, or to grantees holding from the State; and their revenue at present exceeds £2,365,000 per annum, of which more than £295,000 is received by assignees who had, on various grounds, claims to consideration from Government. In some cases, these assignments are of the nature of the release of the revenue of lands belonging to the assignees, but they have no necessary connection with proprietary right; and in the majority of instances the grantees are merely entitled to receive the revenue payable to Government, the amount of which is limited in the same way as if it were paid direct to Government.

From the above figures it will be seen that the great mass of the landed property in the Punjab is held by small proprietors, who cultivate their own land in whole or in part. The chief characteristic of the tenure generally is, that these proprietors are associated together in village communities, having to a greater or less extent joint interests, and under our system of cash payments, limited so as to secure a certain profit to the proprietors, jointly responsible for the payment of the revenue assessed upon the village lands. It is almost an invariable incident of the tenure, that if any of the proprietors wishes to sell his rights, or is obliged to part with them in order to satisfy demands upon him, the other members of the same community have a preferential right to purchase them at the same price as could be obtained from outsiders.

In some cases, all the proprietors have an undivided interest in all the land belonging to the proprietary community,—in other words, all the land is in common; and what the proprietors themselves cultivate is held by them as tenants of the community. Their rights are regutated by their shares in the estate, both as regards the extent of the holdings they are entitled to cultivate and as regards the distribution of profits; and if the profits from land held by non-proprietary cultivators are not sufficient to pay the revenue and other charges, the balance would ordinarily be collected from the proprietors according to the same shares.

It is, however, much more common for the proprietors to have their own separate holdings in the estate; and this separation may extend so

far that there is no land susceptible of separate appropriation which is not the separate property of an individual or family. In an extreme case like this, the right of pre-emption and the joint responsibility for the revenue, in case any of the individual proprietors should fail to meet the demand upon him, are, in the absence of common descent, almost the only ties which bind the community together. The separation, however, generally does not go so far. Often, all the cultivated land is held in separate ownership, while the pasture, ponds, or tanks, etc., remain in common. In other cases, the land cultivated by tenants is the common property of the community; and it frequently happens that the village contains several well-known sub-divisions, each with its own separate land, the whole of which may be held in common by the proprietors of the sub-division, or the whole may be held in severalty, or part in separate ownership and part in common.

Throughout the greater part of the Province, the organization of the proprietors of land into village communities has existed from time immemorial, and is the work of the people themselves, and not the result of measures adopted either by our own or by previous Governments. Indeed, these communities have sometimes been strong enough to resist the payment of revenue to the Government of the day; and before our rule, nothing was more common than for them to decide their disputes by petty wars against each other, instead of having recourse to any superior authority to settle them. But in some localities, the present communities have been constituted from motives of convenience in the application of our system of settlement. Thus, in the Simla Hills, and in the mountainous portions of Kángra District, the present village communities consist of numerous small hamlets, each with its own group of fields and separate lands, and which had no bond of union until they were united for administrative purposes at the time of the Land Revenue Settlement. In the Múltán Division, again, while regular village communities were frequently found in the fertile lands fringing the rivers, all trace of these disappeared where the cultivation was dependent on scattered wells beyond the influence of the river. Here the well was the true unit of property; but where the proprietors of several wells lived together for mutual protection, or their wells were sufficiently near to be conveniently included within one village boundary, the opportunity was taken to group them into village communities.

The same course has been followed in some parts of the Deraját Division, where small separate properties readily admitting of union were found. These arrangements were made possible by the circumstance that the village community system admits of any amount of separation of the property of the individual proprietors, and by care being taken that in the internal distribution of the revenue demand it

should be duly adjusted with reference to the resources of the separate holdings. They also, in general, involved the making over in joint ownership to the proprietors of the separate holdings of waste land situate within the new boundary in which no private property had previously existed. The reason for this artificial inclusion of widely separated tracts is that among the semi-nomad Balúchís there is no intermediate step between the clan and the family. The clan hold a considerable tract of country, over which the families live scattered in tiny hamlets, each having separate property only in its cultivation and irrigation works. An analogous case exists along the Patháń frontier, and in the Salt Range, where a dominant race lives in large central villages, and a subject population occupy scattered hamlets among the fields which they cultivate. Here, again, these hamlets are grouped for revenue and administrative purposes by inclusion within purely artificial boundaries.

In some cases, the village communities, while holding and managing the land as proprietors, are bound to pay a quit-rent to superior proprietors under whom they hold. The settlement is made according to circumstances, either with the superior proprietor, who collects the Government revenue as well as his quit-rent from the communities, or with the communities in actual possession of the land, who pay the land revenue to Government and the quit-rent to the superior proprietor. In either case, the amount which the superior proprietor is entitled to collect is determined at settlement, as well as the amount of the land revenue demand.

In the 30 Districts from which returns of tenure were received in 1872–73, only 435 villages, with an area of 514½ square miles, are shown as held by superior proprietors collecting the Government revenue in addition to their own quit-rent; but this evidently does not include cases where the superior proprietors are also assignees of the Government revenue. There are also 13,169 holdings of superior proprietors who collect only their own quit-rent and are not responsible for the Government revenue. The latter are in many cases persons to whom the quit-rent was given in commutation of more extensive proprietary rights, of which they had been dispossessed in favour of the present holders.

There are sometimes also proprietors holding lands within the estates of village communities, but who are not members of the communities, and are not entitled to share in the common profit, nor liable for anything more than the revenue of their own lands, the village charges ordinarily paid by proprietors, and the quit-rent, if any, payable to the proprietary body of the village. The most common examples of this class are the holders of plots at present or formerly revenue free, in which the assignees were allowed to get proprietary possession in con-

sequence of having planted gardens or made other improvements, or because they had other claims to consideration on the part of the village community. In the Ráwal Pindi Division, also, it was thought proper to record old-established tenants, who had never paid anything for the land they held but their proportion of the land revenue and village expenses, and had long paid direct to the collectors of the revenue—but were not descended from the original proprietary body—as owners of their own holdings, while not participating in the common rights and liabilities of the proprietary community. Except in the Jehlam and Ráwal Pindi Districts, where a small quit-rent was imposed, these inferior proprietors were not required to pay anything in excess of their proportion of the Government revenue and other village charges. In Gujrát, at the time of the first regular settlement, this class held no less than 10 per cent. of the total cultivated area, and in Ráwal Pindi it paid 9 per cent. of the revenue. In Ráwal Pindi the persons recorded as proprietors of their own holdings only were in some cases the representatives of the original proprietary body, *jagírdárs* having established proprietary rights over what were formerly the common lands of the village.

In Múltán and Muzaffargarh, and perhaps in some other Districts in the south of the Punjab, a class of proprietors distinct from the owners of the land, is found under the name of *chakdárs*, *sillandárs*, or *kasúrkhwárs*. These are the owners of wells, or occasionally of irrigation channels, constructed at their expense in land belonging to others. They possess hereditary and transferable rights, both in the well or irrigation channel and in the cultivation of the land irrigated from it, but may be bought out by the proprietor repaying the capital they have expended. They are generally entitled to arrange for the cultivation, paying a small fixed proportion of the produce to the proprietor, and being responsible for the Government revenue. Sometimes, however, the management of the property has been made over to the proprietor, who pays the Government revenue; and the *chakdár* receives from him a fixed proportion of the produce, called *hak kasúr*. Or a third party may manage the property, paying the Government revenue and the *hak kasúr*, out of which the *chakdár* pays the proprietor's allowance.

In Jhang, and possibly in other Districts, a tenure known as *háthrakhai* exists, where the old proprietor, worn down by the extortionate demands of the Sikh officials, has made over his land in absolute property to some stranger who had sufficient influence with the Government to secure favourable terms, on condition of the latter accepting all responsibility for the payment of the revenue, and allowing the original proprietor to continue to cultivate. In Ráwal Pindi, also, there is a small class of well proprietors in the position of middle-men, paying cash rent to the owner of the land, and receiving a grain rent from the cultivator.

In the 30 Districts from which returns are available (1872), the number of tenant holdings is about 1,100,000, as against 3661 landlord proprietors and nearly 2,000,000 cultivating proprietors.

Tenants entered as having rights of occupancy are 378,997, 50,685 as holding conditionally, 1,232,467 as tenants-at-will, and 33,932 as holders of service grants excused from revenue or rent other than the customary service by the proprietors. After the necessary correction for Rohtak District, the tenants-at-will can scarcely be estimated at more than 650,000; and this number and the number of tenants entered as holding conditionally has been considerably reduced by the revision of tenancy entries in the Amritsar Division and in Lahore and Gujránwála Districts, while the number of tenants with right of occupancy has been correspondingly increased. Tenants with rights of occupancy have a heritable, but not, except in the case of a few of a superior class, transferable tenure.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The great centres of trade in the Punjab are Lahore, Amritsar, Múltán, Ambála, Delhi, and Peshávar. The channels of external traffic fall into four great divisions. That on the north frontier comprises the trade with Kashmír, Ladákh, Yárkand, Chinese Tibet, and Central Asia generally; the imports being valued in 1875-76 at £622,991, and the exports at £341,242. In 1883-84 the imports amounted to £605,782 in value, and the exports to £439,230. That on the west frontier includes the trade with Kábul, Tírah, and Siwestán, with imports in 1875-76 valued at £937,188, and exports at £840,017. Of late years, the trans-frontier trade with Kábul has greatly fallen off, and in 1883-84 only amounted to—imports valued at £292,858, and exports £567,287. By both the northern and western trans-frontier routes, the traffic inward consists of *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of Indian hemp), dyes of various kinds, goat's wool, raw silk, fruits and nuts, wood, furs and feathers, and shawl cloth; while indigo, grain, metals, salt, spices, tea, tobacco, Indian and European cotton cloth, hides and leather, form the chief items of return trade. An enormous and increasing trade with Europe takes place, Delhi being the great centre for manufactured imports, while the chief local marts of the grain trade, mentioned below, are the head-quarters of the export trade. Since the opening of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway to Delhi, Bombay has taken the place of Calcutta as the port of shipment for the export trade with Europe.

The internal trade of the Punjab consists mainly of—(1) The Indus traffic with Sind and Karáchi, of which Múltán is the centre, and to which Fazilka and Firozpur contribute by collecting grain and wool from Rájputána and the eastern plains, and sending it down the Sutlej, or by rail to join the Indus Valley State Railway. (2) The trade with eastern Rájputána, of which Delhi is the great centre, and Riwári and

Bhiwáni the principal feeders, salt and wool being imported, and sugar, cotton, and oil-seeds exported. (3) The export of grain and cotton eastwards from the eastern plains, Ludhiána and Delhi being the principal collecting places; and from the western plains, of which Lahore is the centre. (4) The salt traffic of the western Punjab, of which Lahore is still the head-quarters, although not to the same extent as it used to be before the opening of the railway direct to the salt mines. (5) Trade in local manufactures.

As the Punjab is essentially an agricultural country, the exports consist chiefly of grain, cotton, salt, and other raw produce; while the imports comprise cloth, hardware, and other manufactured articles. The mineral wealth of the Province is almost confined to its rich deposits of rock-salt. (*See* MAYO MINES, KALABAGH, SALT RANGE, and JEHLAM, SHAHPUR, and KOHAT Districts.) The principal manufacture of the Punjab is that of cotton cloth, valued in 1883–84 at £2,200,000. The other main items include wood-work, iron, leather, gold and silver lace, silk, and shawls. The total number of manufactories at work in the Province in 1875–76 was returned at 501,165, employing 1,407,911 workmen, with an estimated out-turn of £5,398,282. In 1882–83, the last year for which statistics are available, there were 406 mills or large manufactories at work in the Punjab, besides 484,399 private looms or small works, employing 919,391 native workmen, the estimated total value of the out-turn being £13,710,062.

Communications, etc.—The railway system of the Punjab is a continuation of that which extends from Calcutta into the North-Western Provinces, and has now been put into direct connection with the sea at Karáchi (Kurrachee) in Sind. The East Indian Railway sends a branch across the Jumna at Delhi, whence the Rájputána State Railway runs southward through Delhi and Gurgáon Districts into Rájputána, ultimately extended to Bombay. The Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway (now taken over by Government and re-named the North-Western Railway) continues the main system through the Gangetic Doáb, crossing the Jumna into this Province from Saháranpur District, and runs *viâ* Ambála, Ludhiána, Jálandhar, and Amritsar to Lahore. Thence the Northern Punjab State Railway continues the line as far as Pesháwar on the north-west frontier; while the Indus Valley Railway (now a branch of the North-Western Railway) unites Lahore and Múltán with Baháwalpur, Sukkur (Sakhar), and Karáchi. The total length of railways in the Province in 1875–76 amounted to 663 miles, increased by 1883–84 to 1188 miles. A large part of the heavy traffic is conveyed by country boats on the Five Rivers, and thence by the Indus to the sea, although the river trade is now to a large extent subsidiary to the railway. Excellent metalled roads also connect the main centres of trade and the District head-quarters.

In 1883-84 there were 1817 miles of metalled and 21,949 miles of unmetalled roads in the Province. The navigable rivers afford 2685 miles of water communication. Total length of telegraph lines, 2076 miles in 1883. The Imperial Post-Office conveyed 9,887,643 letters in 1869, and 23,764,182 in 1883. During the 15 years 1869-83, the number of newspapers officially returned as published in the Punjab increased from 13 to 54.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the Punjab is divided into 10 Divisions, namely, DELHI, HISSAR, AMBALA, JALANDHAR, AMRITSAR, LAHORE, RAWAL PINDI, MULTAN, the DERAJAT, and PESHAWAR, each of which see separately. These Divisions comprise 32 Districts. The total revenue of the Province for the year 1876-77 amounted to £3,837,599, of which £2,005,814 was contributed by the land-tax. The expenditure for the same year was returned at £1,945,858. In 1883-84 the total revenue of the Punjab—Imperial, Provincial, Local—amounted to £3,388,589, and the expenditure to £2,111,400, shown in detail in the table on opposite page.

Jails and Police.—The Punjab contained in 1883-84, 35 Central and District Jails, besides 18 subsidiary prisons or lock-ups, with a total daily average of 12,355 prisoners, of whom 456 were females, or an average of 1 prisoner in jail to every 1445 of the population. The convict prison population averaged 11,469 per day. The total cost of the jails, excluding new buildings and repairs, amounted to £72,733. Average cost per convicted prisoner, £6, 0s. 6d., or deducting prisoner's net earnings, £5, 1s. per head. The total police force (excluding the semi-military frontier police) at the end of 1883—including imperial, cantonment, railway, village, canal, and ferry police—consisted of 78 superior officers, 556 subordinate officers, 772 mounted constables, and 19,141 foot constables; total of all ranks, 20,547, giving 1 policeman to every 5·18 square miles of area, or to every 916 of the population. Total cost of police, £322,464, of which £267,042 was paid from Provincial revenues, and £55,422 from municipal and cantonment funds or other local sources. The number of criminal offences returned as 'true' in 1883 was 95,446, of which 78,892 were brought to trial. Of 167,687 persons brought to trial, 98,962 were acquitted or discharged, 66,011 were convicted, 223 were transferred to other Provinces, while 2491 remained under trial at the end of the year. Murder forms the principal serious crime along the north-western frontier and in the trans-Indus tract, committed chiefly by the semi-civilised Patháns and Baluch clans, chiefly from motives of revenge or jealousy. In 1883, out of a total of 346 murders committed in the Province, 175 occurred in the comparatively small trans-Indus tract, as against 171 in the whole of the rest of the Punjab. Cattle-lifting is also a very prevalent crime.

[*Continued on page* 290.

Table of Revenue and Expenditure of the Government of the Punjab for 1883–84.

Revenue.

Heading.	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
Land revenue, . . .	1,133,544	859,713	84,505	2,077,762
Stamps, ...	170,158	170,158	...	340,316
Excise, ...	67,122	67,122	...	134,244
Provincial rates, . . .	...	50,132	205,288	255,420
Assessed taxes, . . .	28,081	28,081	...	56,162
Forest, ...	45,509	45,509	...	91,018
Registration, ...	8,698	8,698	...	17,396
Tributes, ...	28,198	...	...	28,198
Post-office, ...	...	3,004	...	3,004
Law and justice, . . .	...	69,927	...	69,927
Police, ...	...	67,783	...	67,783
Education, ...	...	11,409	...	11,409
Medical, ...	...	2,893	...	2,893
Scientific and minor departments,	...	8,072	...	8,072
Interest, ...	16,137	740	...	16,877
Superannuation, . . .	...	4,008	...	4,008
Stationery, ...	...	8,942	...	8,942
Irrigation and navigation, .	28,361	5,561	...	33,922
Land revenue due to irrigation,	42,951	29,503	...	72,454
Civil buildings, . . .	...	61,298	...	61,298
Credit on account of exchange,	1,277	...	...	1,277
Miscellaneous, ...	8,002	8,014	10,191	26,207
	1,578,038	1,510,567	299,984	3,388,589

Expenditure.

Heading.	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
Interest on ordinary debt, .	1,080	...	...	1,080
Interest on other obligations, .	1,070	...	...	1,070
Refunds and drawbacks, . .	7,745	6,356	53	14,154
Assignments and compensations,	21,042	...	...	21,042
Land revenue, ...	36,733	192,468	67,985	297,186
Opium, ...	175	...	...	175
Stamps, ...	6,612	6,612	...	13,224
Excise, ...	2,966	2,966	...	5,932
Provincial rates, ...	...	3,957	11,872	15,829
Assessed taxes, ...	96	96	...	192
Forest, ...	32,504	32,504	...	65,008
Registration, ...	4,355	4,355	...	8,710
Post-office, ...	...	8,666	5,613	14,279
General administration, . .	17,615	111,879	160	129,654
Law and justice, ...	...	320,449	...	320,449
Police, ...	14,455	320,460	...	334,915
Education, ...	...	71,261	45,743	117,004
Ecclesiastical, ...	19,487	...	...	19,487
Medical, ...	...	53,472	26,766	80,238
Political, ...	95,885	...	...	95,885
Scientific and minor departments,	3,677	10,257	8,415	22,349
Territorial and political pensions,	49,511	...	...	49,511
Superannuation allowances, .	...	56,639	...	56,639
Stationery and printing, . .	...	39,639	200	39,839
Interest on debt for productive public works, ...	...	11,115	...	11,115
Irrigation and navigation, .	...	1,387	...	1,387
Other public works, . . .	...	285,970	74,195	360,165
Exchange on trans. with London,	99	...	...	99
Miscellaneous, ...	2,911	9,182	2,690	14,783
	318,018	1,549,690	243,692	2,111,400

Continued from page 288.]

Military.—Thirty-eight towns, cantonments, and military stations in the Punjab are garrisoned by the Bengal Army, with a total force in March 1884 of 15,868 European and 18,083 Native troops; total, 33,951 officers and men of all ranks, with 96 field guns. The Punjab Frontier Force numbers in all (March 1884) 12,491 officers and men, with 16 guns. Artillery numbers 757; cavalry, 2574; and infantry, 9158. European officers number 186; Native commissioned officers, 248; non-commissioned officers and fighting men, 10,837, besides camp followers. The main body of the force is cantoned along the frontier at Abbottábád, Mardán, Kohát, Edwardesábád, Dera Ismáil Khán, Dera Gházi Khán, and Rájanpur, with 46 outpost stations, of which 22 were held in 1884 by detachments of regular cavalry and infantry and the remainder by locally raised militia levies. The Punjab Volunteer Administrative Battalion consists of three rifle corps, one with its head-quarters at Lahore, a second with its head-quarters at Simla, and a third or railway corps stationed along the line of railway, with its head-quarters at Lahore. Total strength of volunteers in March 1884, 1583, of whom 1539 were efficients.

Education.—The Punjab University dates only from 1882, when its first convocation was held at Lahore in the presence of the Viceroy. The institution is rapidly gaining in popularity, and in its second year may be said to have rivalled the Calcutta University, so far as regards natives of the Punjab. The principal educational institutions are the Lahore Government College; Oriental College; St. Stephen's College, Delhi; Lahore Medical School; St. Thomas' College, Murree; Bishop Cotton School, Simla; and the Lawrence Military Asylum, Sanáwar, the largest European school in the Punjab. The following are the educational statistics for the year ending 31st March 1884. University education is provided for by 2 arts colleges, attended by 152 pupils; secondary education by 26 high schools, with 928 pupils; and 211 boys' middle schools, with 6774 pupils. Boys' primary schools numbered 1629, with 106,901 pupils. Technical education is provided by the Lahore Training College, with 57 pupils; the Mayo School of Art, with 62 pupils; the Medical School, with 159 pupils; 4 normal schools for male teachers, with 206 pupils; and 3 industrial schools, with 79 pupils. Total schools for boys, 1878, with 114,755 pupils. For female education there are 6 middle and 336 primary schools, attended by 10,378 girls; besides 6 normal schools with 191 pupils, and 1 industrial school with 19 pupils. Total number of institutions in 1883–84, 2227, of which 348 were for girls. Total number of pupils, 125,906, of whom 10,588 were girls. The above figures do not include the Lawrence Military Asylum School at Sanáwar, which had 424 boys and girls on its rolls at the annual inspection in September

1883. The total cost of education to the State in 1883–84 amounted to £167,327.

Temperature and Climate.—Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to the wide expanse of untilled plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other part of India. The extreme heat of the summer months begins to moderate about the middle of September; and after the beginning of October, though the days are still hot, the nights are fairly cool. From that time the temperature sinks lower and lower, till the minimum is reached with the fall of the winter rains in the early part of January, when sharp frosts are common, and water exposed at night with due precautions is frozen in all parts of the Province. The temperature then rises again slowly but steadily till the end of March. With April the hot weather proper may be said to begin.

For the next three months the Punjab acts as the exhaust-chamber of India, and creates that monsoon of which it enjoys so small a share. The great plains bake throughout the long summer days, the heated air rises, and with it the barometer, the wind rushes in from the area of greatest pressure to the west and south-west to supply the partial void, and dust-laden hot winds sweep with unbroken violence over the open plains, while the dancing air seems to blaze with the glare reflected from the ground. It is said that the fierceness of this heat has a beneficial effect in disintegrating and preparing for tillage the fallow fields, similar to that exercised by frost in more frigid climates.

Towards the end of June the wind changes—at least in the east of the Province; the vapour-laden monsoon travelling up the Ganges Valley approaches the border; the sky grows heavy with clouds, and the heat becomes stifling almost beyond endurance, till the first burst of the welcome rains relieves the tension. The succeeding three months constitute the rainy season. The heat of July is hardly less intense than that of June, but the air is moist, while from the middle of August the temperature gradually falls, and it again becomes possible to bel eve in the existence of winter.

On the hills, the seasons and their changes are very similar, though of course the heat is much more moderate, and the cold much more severe. From the middle of December to the middle of January, snow-storms are heavy and frequent throughout the Himálayas proper; while even in the height of summer the thermometer seldom rises above 90° in the shade.

The following are the temperatures recorded in 1883 at a station in the east, centre, and north-west of the Punjab plains, together with that of the hill station of Simla:—(1) Delhi—May, maximum, 116·6° F.; minimum, 68·2°; mean, 93·4°: July, maximum, 103·6°; minimum,

76°; mean, 89·5°: December, maximum, 76·7°; minimum, 41·3°; mean, 60·6°. (2) Lahore—May, maximum, 112·5°; minimum, 64·6°; mean, 88·5°: July, maximum, 114·5°; minimum, 75·9°; mean, 92·3°: December, maximum, 73·7°; minimum, 36°; mean, 56°. (3) Dera Ismáil Khán—May, maximum, 113·5°; minimum, 64·8°; mean, 88·2°: July, maximum, 110·5°; minimum, 70·8°; mean, 92·4°: December, maximum, 76·7°; minimum, 34°; mean, 55·9°. (4) Simla—May, maximum, 87·4°; minimum, 44·6°; mean, 68·4°: July, maximum, 76·5°; minimum, 57·9°; mean, 66·9°: December, maximum, 61·9°; minimum, 31·6°; mean, 45·8°.

Rainfall.—The Punjab enjoys two well-marked seasons of rainfall—the monsoon, lasting from the middle of June to the end of September, which brings by far the greater portion of the annual supply, and upon which the autumn crops and spring sowings depend; and the winter rains, which fall early in January, and although insignificant in amount, affect very materially the prospects of the spring harvest. The rainfall is heavier in the Himálayas than in any other portion of the Province, the vapour-laden air from the south-east and south precipitating its water as it rises to top the great mountain barrier across its path. The highest average of the Province is 126½ inches at Dharmsála. Excepting the Alpine regions, the rainfall is greatest in the east of the Province. In the plain country, the rainfall decreases rapidly as the distance from the hills increases, and markedly also, though less rapidly, proceeding from east to west. The submontane zone, which skirts the foot of the mountains, has an annual fall of from 30 to 40 inches, while in the strip of country lying along the right bank of the Jumna, the average is between 25 and 30 inches. But in no other portion of the Province, except in the portions of the Salt Range immediately under the hills, are these figures approached. In the eastern plains the annual fall may be said, roughly speaking, to decrease by about 1 inch for every 10 miles of distance from the hills, and ranges along their southern border between 20 inches in the east (Rohtak) and 15 in the west (Sirsa). But directly the meridian of Lahore is crossed, and the great steppes of the western plains are entered, the figures fall to 8 or 10 inches, while in the neighbourhood of Múltán in the extreme south-west of the Province, the yearly average is only from 5 to 6 inches. The great rivers have a slight local effect in increasing the amount of rain precipitated in their immediate neighbourhood; and this influence is of more importance than appears from bare statistics, as the addition thus made to the total annual fall is distributed in the form of occasional showers which often bring timely moisture to the crops.

Medical Aspects.—The principal endemic disease of the Punjab is fever. Small-pox and cholera in a more or less epidemic form are rarely

entirely absent from some portion of the Province. The total number of births registered in 1883-84 was 734,912, giving a birth-rate of 39 per thousand, varying from a maximum of 53·32 per thousand in Siálkot, to a minimum of 10·04 per thousand at Simla. The registered deaths in the same year numbered 475,741, or giving a death-rate of 25 per thousand, as against an average of 31·6 per thousand for the previous five years. The deaths from fevers alone numbered 306,185, or 16·25 per thousand of the population. The Province contained in 1883-84, 191 hospitals and dispensaries, affording medical relief to 38,016 in-door and 1,560,240 out-door patients, at a total cost of £44,261, of which Government contributed £7050.

Punjab Native States.—The Native States in dependence on the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab are 36 in number, comprising an area of 35,817 square miles, and a population in 1881 of 3,861,683 persons, as shown in the table on next page. Until recently, Kashmír was included among the Punjab States, but in 1877 it was placed under the direct political control of the Government of India.

Of the above 36 States, four, namely, Patiála, Bahawalpur, Jínd, and Nábha, are under the direct control of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab; one—Chamba, under the Commissioner of Amritsar; two, namely, Máler Kotla and Kalsia, with the twenty-two Simla Hill States, under the Commissioner of Ambála; three—Kapúrthalá, Mandi, and Suket, under the Commissioner of Jálandhar; one—Farídkot, under the Commissioner of Lahore; one—Pataudí, under the Commissioner of Delhi; and two—Loháru and Dujána, under the Commissioner of Hissár.

Relations with Government.—The relations of the British Govern-with Baháwalpur are regulated by treaty; those with the other States by *sanads* or charters from the Governor-General. Patiála, Jínd, and Máler Kotla furnish a quota of horsemen for service in British territory in lieu of tribute. The other States pay a money tribute, aggregating £27,907 in 1883-84. The States of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha are ruled by members of the Phulkián family. Should the ruling line in any of these States become extinct in respect of direct heirs, the *sanads* provide for the selection of a collateral as successor by the chiefs of the other two States. A *nazarána* or relief is payable to the British Government by the collateral heir who succeeds. The Phulkián chiefs, and also the Rájá of Farídkot, are bound by *sanad* to execute justice, and to promote the welfare of their people; to prevent *sati*, slavery, and female infanticide; to co-operate with the British Government against an enemy, and to furnish supplies to troops; and to grant, free of expense, land required for railways and imperial lines of road. On the other hand, the British Government has guaranteed them full and unreserved

[*Continued on page* 295.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF THE PUNJAB NATIVE STATES IN 1881.

STATES.	Area in Square Miles.	No. of Towns and Villages.	No. of Houses.	No. of Families.	POPULATION.			Estimated Revenue, 1883-84.
					Both Sexes	Males.	Females.	
Plains.								£
Patiáia, . .	5,887	2,601	282,063	328,668	1,467,433	806,984	660,449	468,956
Nábha, . .	928	485	42,019	56,519	261,824	145,155	116,669	65,000
Kapúrthalá, .	620	617	37,633	62,047	252,617	138,638	113,979	100,000
Jínd, . .	1,232	423	42,078	62,787	249,862	136,909	112,953	60,000
Farídkot, . .	612	168	10,031	19,587	97,034	53,848	43,186	30,000
Máler Kotla, .	164	115	12,964	16,575	71,051	38,550	32,501	28,400
Kalsia, . .	178	179	9,311	15,416	67,708	36,896	30,812	17,206
Dujána, . .	114	28	2,981	5,022	23,416	12,525	10,891	7,717
Pataudí, . .	48	40	2,537	4,136	17,847	9,510	8,337	8,076
Loháru, . .	285	54	1,617	2,500	13,754	7,539	6,215	6,900
Baháwalpur, .	15,000	922	88,650	122,623	573,494	314,395	259,099	160,000
Total Plains,	25,068	5,632	531,884	695,880	3,096,040	1,700,949	1,395,091	952,255
Hills.								
Mandi, . .	1,000	4,559	24,331	28,619	147,017	75,588	71,429	36,000
Chamba, . .	3,180	356	20,163	24,684	115,773	60,382	55,391	23,500
Náhan, . .	1,077	2,069	21,562	23,181	112,371	63,305	49,066	21,000
Biláspur, . .	448	1,073	9,625	18,600	86,546	47,133	39,413	10,000
Bashahr, . .	3,320	836	8,533	8,557	64,345	33,019	31,326	5,000
Nálagarh, .	252	331	10,246	12,340	53,373	29,082	24,291	9,000
Suket, . .	474	220	8,658	9,517	52,484	29,280	23,204	10,000
Keunthal, .	116	838	6,318	6,654	31,154	17,329	13,825	6,000
Bághal, . .	124	346	1,446	3,738	20,633	11,036	9,597	6,000
Jabbal, . .	288	472	3,051	3,190	19,196	10,605	8,591	3,000
Bhajji, . .	96	327	582	1,791	12,106	6,720	5,386	2,300
Kumhársain, .	90	254	1,445	1,522	9,515	4,920	4,595	1,000
Mailog, . .	48	222	626	1,932	9,169	4,966	4,203	1,000
Bághat, . .	36	178	1,954	2,023	8,339	4,957	3,382	800
Balsan, . .	51	152	1,263	1,345	5,190	2,878	2,312	700
Kuthar, . .	7	150	863	873	3,648	2,020	1,628	500
Dhámi, . .	26	214	688	711	3,322	1,776	1,546	800
Taroch, . .	67	44	538	549	3,216	1,850	1,366	600
Sángri, . .	16	105	435	550	2,593	1,440	1,153	100
Kunhiár, . .	8	66	440	451	1,923	1,017	906	400
Bija, . . .	4	33	263	263	1,158	649	509	100
Mángal, . .	12	33	209	224	1,060	583	477	70
Rawai, . .	3	18	133	134	752	426	326	...
Darkotí, . .	5	8	92	95	590	295	295	60
Dádhi, . .	1	10	44	45	170	98	72	...
Total Hills,	10,749	12,914	123,508	151,588	765,643	411,354	354,289	137,930
Grand Total of Punjab States,	35,817	18,546	655,392	847,468	3,861,683	2,112,303	1,749,380	1,090,185

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possession of their territories. They and Baháwalpur differ from the remaining feudatories in the fact that they possess power to inflict capital punishment upon their subjects. The treaties with Baháwalpur define the supreme position of the British Government, and bind the Nawáb to act in accordance with the wishes of Government, while in turn the British Government engages to protect the State. *Sanads* of varying import are also possessed by the minor feudatories.

Religion.—Of the chiefs, those of Baháwalpur, Máler Kotla, Pataudí, Loháru, and Dujána are Muhammadans; those of Patiála, Jínd, Nábha, Kapúrthalá, Farídkot, and Kalsia are Sikhs; and the rest are Hindus. Of the Muhammadan chiefs, the Nawáb of Baháwalpur is head of the Dáúdpútra tribe, and a descendant of Baháwal Khán, who acquired independence during the collapse of the Afghán Sadozai kingdom at the commencement of the present century. The Nawáb of Máler Kotla is a member of an Afghán family which came from Kábul about the time of the rise of the Mughal Empire; his ancestors held offices of importance under the Delhi kings, and became independent as the Mughal dynasty sank into decay. The chiefs of Pataudí and Dujána are descended from Afghán adventurers, and the Nawáb of Loháru from Mughal, upon whom estates were conferred by the British Government as a reward for services rendered to Lord Lake in the beginning of this century.

Race.—With one exception, the Sikh chiefs belong to the Ját race. Chaudhri Phul, the ancestor of the houses of Patiála, Jínd, and Nábha, died in 1652. His descendants took advantage of the breaking up of the Mughal Empire in the eighteenth century, and of the confusion that attended the successive Persian, Afghán, and Maráthá invasions of Delhi, to establish themselves, at the head of marauding bands of Sikh horsemen, in the cis-Sutlej Provinces, and eventually, to rise into independent chiefs. The Rájá of Kapúrthalá belongs to the Kalál tribe, and his ancestor, Jassa Singh, took rank among the Sikh Sardárs about the middle of the last century. The founder of the Farídkot family, a Burár Ját by tribe, rose to prominence in the service of Babar. Jodh Singh founded the Kalsia State about a hundred years ago. The remaining chiefs, whose territories lie along the lower Himálayan hill ranges, are principally of Rájput descent, claiming a very ancient lineage.

Chiefs who are Minors.—The rulers of Patiála, Kapúrthalá, Chamba, Suket, Pataudí, and Taroch are (1884) minors. The State of Patiála is administered by a Council of Regency, composed of a President, Sardár Sir Dewa Singh, K.C.S.I., and two members, Chaudhri Charat Rám and Námdár Khán. A British medical officer supervises the education of the Mahárájá and his brother. Kapúrthalá and Chamba

are under the direct management of British officers; in the remainder of the States, Native Superintendents carry on the administration with the assistance of relatives of the minors or of the State officials, and under the general control of the Commissioners of the Divisions under whose charge the States are respectively placed. Further information will be found in a separate article for each State under its respective alphabetical heading.

Punnah.—State and town in Bundelkhand.—*See* PANNA.

Pun-na-riep (*Poon-na-riep*).—Village in the Mo-nyo township of Tharawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* PON-NA-REIP.

Punniar. — Battle-field in Gwalior State, Central India. — *See* PANNIAR.

Púnpún.—River of South Behar, rising in the extreme south of Gayá District, in lat. 24° 30′ N., and long. 84° 11′ E. It flows towards the Ganges, into Patná District, in a north-easterly course, more or less parallel to that of the Son, till it approaches the canal at Naubatpur, where it takes a bend to the east, crossing the Patná and Gayá road about 10 miles from Bánkipur, and joining the Ganges at Fatwá. About 9 miles above its junction with the Ganges, the Púnpún is joined by the Múrhar. Lat. 25° 28′ 45″ N., long. 85° 13′ 30″ E. The width of the Púnpún, which is enclosed with high steep banks, is here about 100 yards.

Púr.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated about 60 miles to the north-east of Udaipur town, in the centre of the tract set apart as a provision for the *bábás* or relations of the blood-royal. About a mile to the east of the town is an isolated hill of blue slate, in which garnets have been found. Púr is one of the oldest towns in Mewár, and, according to tradition, bears date anterior to Vikrama.

Puraiyár (or *Porayár*). — Town in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11′ 1° N., and long. 79° 53′ E., close to, and a suburb of, Tranquebar.—*See* TRANQUEBAR.

Purandhar. — Sub-division of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 470 square miles, containing 1 town and 91 villages. Population (1881) 75,678, namely, 37,478 males and 38,200 females. Hindus number 73,536; Muhammadans, 1570; and 'others,' 572. Purandhar, one of the southern Sub-divisions of Poona, with its head-quarters at SASWAD, is a hilly tract. The ranges run north-east and south-west, dividing the tract into two valleys, along which flow almost parallel streams. The spur of the Sahyádris, which forms the watershed between the Bhíma and the Nira, runs along the northern boundary of the Sub-division. Its chief peaks are those in which stand Malhargarh fort, and the Hindu temples of Bhuleswar and Dhavaleswar. A branch of the same spur fills the southern half of the Sub-division, the only

important peak being crowned by the twin forts of Purandhar and Wazírgarh. The general level is about 2800 feet above the sea; but the hill of Purandhar is nearly 1700 feet higher, on which, about 400 feet from the summit, is Purandhar fort. The Nira, with its small feeder the Karha, and the Ganjauni, are the principal streams. The Karha, from the lowness of the banks, is of great use to landholders, who hold back its water by means of dams, and raise it with lifts. When the Nira water-works are completed, a large area of the Sub-division will be commanded. Besides 280 wells used for drinking purposes, about 1677 wells are used for irrigation. The raw sugar of Purandhar is much prized for its quality, which is said to be due to the peculiar practice of keeping the cane in the ground 18 months. The cane is planted in May or June, and cut in November or December of the following year. The chief crop is *bájra*, which covers 48 per cent. of the whole area under tillage; the next is *joár*, with 27·2 per cent. Of the whole area under cultivation, 51·5 per cent. are under early, and 48·5 per cent. under late crops. The height above the sea, the unfailing water-supply, and the woody valleys, combine to make Purandhar one of the pleasantest and healthiest parts of the District. The western branch of the Southern Maráthá Railway (now under construction) traverses the Sub-division. The thrifty, skilful husbandmen, the Nira Canal, and railway communication, have combined to draw attention to Purandhar as the most favourable part of the Deccan in which to try the experiment of an agricultural bank. The area cultivated in 1881-82 was 124,046 acres, of which 2225 acres were twice cropped. Grain crops occupied 117,997 acres; pulses, 5233 acres; oil-seeds, 501 acres; fibres, 91 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 2449 acres, of which 1022 were under sugar-cane. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thána*), 1; regular police, 58 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 233. Land revenue, £9798.

Purandhar.—Once a fortress, and now a sanitarium for European troops, in Purandhar Sub-division, Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. It really comprises two hill forts, Purandhar and Wazírgarh, and lies in lat. 18° 16′ 33″ N., and long. 74° 0′ 45″ E.; 20 miles south-east of Poona city. The highest point of the mountain of Purandhar is upwards of 1700 feet above the plain below, and 4472 feet above sea-level. Purandhar is larger, higher, and more important than Wazírgarh. The summit of both hills is crowned with a masonry ruin studded here and there with bastions. Purandhar is varied by two elevations, on the higher of which, the loftiest point in the range, is a temple to Siva. The hill on which this temple stands is part of the upper fort of Purandhar. On the northern face of the hill, 300 feet below the temple and upwards of 1000 feet above the plain,

runs a level terrace on which stands the military cantonment, flanked on the east by the barracks and on the west by the hospital. The northern edge of the terrace is defended by a low wall with several semicircular bastions, and a gate flanked by two towers. This is called the Máchi or terrace fort. At the foot of the hill is a well-built rest-house, from which the ascent leads by a wide, easy road. From the middle of the cantonment, a winding road, 830 yards long, runs towards the upper fort, ending in a flight of rude stone steps which wind between a loop-holed wall of masonry and the basalt cliff on which the fort stands. A sharp turn leads suddenly to the Delhi Gate, flanked by solid bastion towers. The defences, like most of the hill forts in this part of the country, are of perpendicular rock, and are weakened rather than strengthened by curtains and bastions of masonry.

The earliest known mention of Purandhar is in the reign of the first Bahmaní king, Alá-ud-dín Hassan Gangu (1347–1358), who obtained possession of almost the whole of Mahárashtra, from the Purandhar range to the Káveri (Cauvery), and fortified Purandhar in 1350. During the early rule of the Bijápur and Ahmadnagar kings, Purandhar was among the forts which were reserved by the Government, and never entrusted to *jágirdárs* or estate-holders. The fort of Purandhar passed to Málojí, the grandfather of Sivají, when Báhudar Nizám Sháh of Ahmadnagar (1576–1599) granted him Poona and Supa. In 1665 it was invested by the forces of Aurangzeb, under the command of Rájá Jai Singh, the famous Rájput general, assisted by the Afghán Diler Khán. Though the defence by Báji Prabhu, a Dashpándya of Mhár, who was the commandant of the fort, was obstinate, Sivají appears to have been so intimidated at the prospect of the fall of Purandhar that he surrendered it, together with Singhgarh, and entered the service of Aurangzeb. He revolted, however, and recaptured Purandhar in 1670. After the power of the Peshwás had superseded that of the descendants of Sivají at Poona, Purandhar was the usual stronghold to which the Peshwás retreated when unable to remain in safety at their capital. In 1818, Purandhar was invested by a British force under General Pritzler. On the 14th of March a mortar battery opened on it; and on the 15th, Wazírgarh admitted a British garrison. As Wazírgarh commanded Purandhar, the commandant had to accept the terms given to that garrison, and the British colours were hoisted at Purandhar on the 16th March 1818. The fort commands a passage through the Gháts, called the Purandhar Ghát. Here, in 1776, was concluded a treaty between the British Government and the Maráthá States; but its conditions were never fulfilled, being overruled by the subsequent treaty of Salbáí in 1782 between the Bombay Government and Raghuba, at the close of the first Maráthá war.

Puránigudám.—River-side village in Nowgong District, Assam, whose inhabitants are engaged in fishing and trade.

Purárá.—*Zamíndárí* or petty chiefship in the south-east of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, along the Bágh river; comprising 7 villages. Area, 37 square miles, of which 7 are cultivated. Population (1881) 3517. The chief is a Gond, and the population consists mainly of Gonds and Goárás. The forests contain good building timber, but are infested by tigers. Purárá, the chief village, is situated in lat. 21° 9′ N., long. 80° 26′ E.

Purí.—A District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, forming the southern portion of the Orissa Division; lying between 19° 27′ 40″ and 20° 16′ 20″ N. lat., and between 85° 0′ 26″ and 86° 28′ E. long. Area, 2473 square miles; population (1881) 888,487 souls. Bounded on the north by the Government estate of Bánkí, and Athgarh Tributary State; on the east and north-east by Cuttack District; on the south-east and south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by the Madras District of Ganjám and the State of Ranpur. The head-quarters of the District are at PURI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Purí District generally may be divided into three tracts—west, middle, and east. The western extends from the right bank of the Dayá river across the stone country of Dándimál and Khurdhá, till it rises into the hills of the Tributary States. It contains the only mountains found in Purí. A low range, beginning in Dompárá and running south-east in an irregular line towards the Chilká Lake, constitutes a watershed between this tract and the Mahánadi river. The most important peaks are in the Khurdha Sub-division. On the north of the Chilká they become bold and very varied in shape, and throw out spurs and promontories into the lake, forming island-studded bays, with fertile valleys running far inland between their ridges. The middle and eastern divisions consist entirely of alluvial plains, the south-western part of the Mahánadi delta. They are watered by a network of channels, through which the most southerly branch of that river, the Koyákhái, finds its way into the sea. The middle tract comprises the richest and most populous *parganás* of the District; the eastern is less thickly peopled, and in the extreme east loses itself in the jungles around the mouths of the Deví stream. The following scheme briefly shows the river system of the District:—

Koyákhái	Kusbhadrá	Práchí, Kusbhadrá	Kusbhadrá	Bay of Bengal.
	Bhárgaví	Bhárgaví	Bhárgaví	Chilká Lake.
		Nún, Dayá	Dayá	

All these rivers are navigable by large boats during the rainy season, but none is deep enough for boats of 100 *maunds*, or say 4 tons

burden, throughout the year. Only one of them, the Kusbhadrá, enters the sea. It follows a very winding course, and is of little value for navigation. Its bed has silted up, and its floods devastate the surrounding country. The three rivers most important to the people of Purí are the Bhárgaví, the Dayá, and the Nún, which all enter the Chilká Lake after running widely diverse courses. In the rainy season they come down in tremendous floods, that burst the banks and carry everything before them. In the dry weather they die away into long shallow pools in the midst of vast expanses of sand. Their banks are generally abrupt, and in many parts are artificially raised and protected by strong dykes. The total length of Government embankments in Purí District amounted in 1866 to $316\frac{3}{4}$ miles, with 43 sluices, maintained at an annual cost of £7, 16s. per mile.

The total cost to Government of inundations in Purí District amounted, for construction of embankments, etc., and remission of revenue alone, to £79,963 in fifteen years, equivalent to a charge of 10 per cent. on the total land revenue of the District. In addition to this large sum, it is estimated that the single flood of 1866 destroyed standing crops to the value of £643,683 in Purí District alone, notwithstanding that 10,620 acres of fertile land are permanently left untilled for fear of inundation. The truth is, that the Mahánadi, in time of flood, pours double the quantity of water into the Purí rivers that their channels are capable of carrying to the sea. The result is, that the surplus overflows, in spite of embankments and protective works. The whole District lives in readiness for such calamities; and the deaths by drowning reported to the police, during the three years ending in 1870, averaged only 117 per annum. These figures, however, by no means represent the total loss of life from this cause. The excessive floods also render tillage precarious, and the crops uncertain; so that in localities most subject to inundations, the rents are brought down to one-fifth of the rates obtained for the same quality of land in parts protected from the violence of the rivers. Of the 24 fiscal divisions (*parganás*) of the District, 12 are still so completely at the mercy of the rivers that more than 50 per cent. of their area was flooded in 1866.

The coast-line of Purí consists of a belt of sandy ridges, varying from 4 miles to a few hundred yards in breadth. It contains no harbours of any importance. Purí port is simply an unprotected roadstead, open from the middle of September to the middle of March. During the remainder of the year, the surf does not allow of the vessels frequenting the port (chiefly country brigs) being laden or unladen. The principal lakes in the District are the Sar and the Chilká. The former is a backwater of the river Bhárgaví, and is 4 miles long by 2 broad.

The CHILKA LAKE is an inland sea in the extreme south-east corner

of Orissa, separated from the ocean by a narrow sandy ridge. On the west, the lake is hemmed in by lofty mountains, and on the south it is bounded by the hilly watershed separating Orissa from Madras. It is a pear-shaped expanse of water, 44 miles long, of which the northern half has a mean breadth of 20 miles, while the southern barely averages 5 miles. Its smallest area is returned at 344 square miles in the dry weather, increasing to about 450 in the rainy season. Its mean depth is from 3 to 5 feet, and its bed is in some parts slightly below low-water mark. From December to June the lake is salt. The theories respecting the origin of the Chilká are given at length in the article under that heading. The scenery of the lake is very varied, and in places exceedingly picturesque. On its eastern side lie the islands of PARIKUD, which have silted up behind, and are now partially joined to the ridge of land shutting off the Chilká from the sea. Salt-making is largely carried on in this part of the District. The Purí rivers enter the Chilká at its northern end; and it is in the tracts situated here that the greatest suffering occurs in times of general inundation.

There are no revenue-paying forests in Purí District; but the jungles yield honey, beeswax, *tasar* silk, the dye called *gundi*, and various medicinal drugs. The timber-trees include *sál*, *sissu*, ebony, jack-wood, mango, *piásál*, *kurmá*, etc. Bamboos and rattan-canes abound. Game of every kind is plentiful; but in the open part of the country the larger wild beasts have been nearly exterminated. Of fishes there is an endless variety, and the fisheries have been estimated to give employment to 30,073 fishermen.

History.—The general history of Purí is that of ORISSA. The only two noteworthy political events that have taken place since the District passed into our hands, together with the rest of the Province, in 1803, are the rebellion of the Mahárájá of Khurdhá in 1804, and the rising of the *páiks* or peasant militia in 1817–18.

The Rájá of Khurdhá, although stripped of a considerable portion of his territory, had been left by the Maráthás in comparative independence within his own *kilá* or fort. When we entered the Province, the Rájá passively espoused our cause, and the decision of the British Commissioners to retain the *parganás* taken by the Maráthás was acquiesced in by him. But after the European troops had returned to Madras, and the native force at Cuttack had been considerably reduced by the necessity of establishing detached outposts in different parts of the country, the Rájá thought that a favourable opportunity had arrived for recovering the lost territory. As a tentative measure, he sent one of his servants in July 1804 to collect the rents of one of the villages, named Bátgáon, lying within the Mughalbandí. This messenger was summarily ejected; and the Commissioners addressed to the Rájá a strong remon-

strance, but the warning appears to have had but little effect. In September of the same year (1804), the Rájá was detected in an intrigue relative to the affairs of the Purí temple. He was therefore forbidden to issue orders to any person whatever residing within the limits of Mughalbandí territory, without the express sanction of the Commissioners.

In October, exactly one month after the issue of this order, the Rájá's troops—if a disorderly mob of *páiks* and peons can so be called—made a raid on the villages in the vicinity of Pipplí; and this affair, though partaking more of the nature of a large *dakáiti* or gang-robbery than of an organized and preconcerted military aggression, occasioned considerable alarm. The majority of our forces had returned to Madras, and what few troops remained behind were scattered over a large area. The nature of the country rendered speedy communication and rapid concentration impossible. Troops were sent for from Ganjám, and a detachment speedily marched from Cuttack. The rebels, driven out of Pipplí, retreated to the fort at Khurdhá, followed by our troops. In three weeks the approaches, which were stockaded and fortified with strong masonry barriers, were carried by storm; but the Rájá made good his escape southwards. A few days later he surrendered, and his territory was confiscated. The Rájá was released in 1807 and allowed to reside in Purí, his estate being managed as a Government *khás mahál*, and an allowance made for his maintenance.

In 1817, the *páiks* or landed militia rose in open rebellion against the oppressions suffered at the hands of the farmers, *sarbaráhkárs*, and other underlings, to whom was entrusted the collection of the revenue; and also against the tyrannies of a venal police. They found a natural leader in one Jagabandhu, an officer who had inherited from his ancestors the post of commander of the forces of the Rájá of Khurdhá, and ranked next to the Rájá himself. He had been unlawfully deprived of his estate, and reduced to beggary. For nearly two years he derived his maintenance from the voluntary contributions of the people, and wandered about attended by a ragged band of followers, bearing the insignia pertaining to his former position. The rebels first attacked the police station and Government offices at Bánpur, where they killed upwards of a hundred men, and carried off about £1500 of treasure. The civil buildings at Khurdhá were burnt to the ground; and another body of the insurgents advanced into Lembái *parganá*, and murdered one of our native officials, who had incurred their displeasure.

On the report of these occurrences, the authorities at Cuttack at once despatched a force, one detachment of which marched direct to Khurdhá, and another to Pipplí. After some severe fighting, British

authority soon re-established itself everywhere. The Rájá was captured in Purí town as he was on the point of taking flight, and was removed to Calcutta, and placed in confinement in Fort William, where he died in November 1817. The country has been gradually restored to order and tranquillity; and at the present day, Khurdhá is a profitable Government property, and the cultivators are a contented and prosperous class. The present Rájá of Purí was convicted in 1878 of murder, and sentenced to penal servitude for life.

Purí district is of surpassing interest as containing the sacred shrine of Jagannáth, which, with the festivals held there, is fully described in the article on PURI TOWN.

Population.—A Census, roughly taken by the police in 1854, returned the population of Purí District at 700,000. In 1866, after the famine, the houses were counted by the police, and, after allowing 5 inhabitants to each house, the population was estimated at 528,712. The regular Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 769,674 persons, dwelling in 3175 villages and 143,920 houses. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 888,487, showing an increase of 118,813, or 15·43 per cent., in nine years.

The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2473 square miles; number of towns and villages, 5166; number of houses, 127,369. Total population 888,487, namely, males 446,609, and females 441,878; proportion of males, 50·2 per cent. Average density of population, 359 persons per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 172; average number of persons per house, 6·9. Classified as to sex and age, there are—under 15 years, males 175,545, and females 169,659; total children, 345,204, or 38·8 per cent. of the total population: above 15 years, males 271,064, and females 272,219; total adults, 543,283, or 61·2 per cent.

Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 873,664, or 98·3 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 14,003, or 1·6 per cent.; Christians, 819; and Sikh, 1. Among the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 88,692; Rájputs, 3898; Karans, 28,738; Khandáits, 18,742; and Baniyás, 14,054. Other castes include the following—Chása, the principal agricultural class and most numerous caste in the District, 217.406; Baurí, 69,307; Goálá, 66,662; Telí, 38,916; Súdra, 29,357; Keut or Kewat, 28,476; Nápít, 20,094; Kandára, 16,739; Dhobí, 14,517; Tántí, 12,787; Mali, 12,059; Barhai, 11,680; Kumbhár, 11,448; Harí, 7617; Lohár, 6454; and Pan, 6124. Caste-rejecting Hindus number 7702, of whom 7273 are Vaishnavs. The Muhammadans are sub-divided according to sect into Sunnís, 13,317; Shiás, 316; and unspecified, 370. The Christian population comprises—Europeans, 19; Eurasians, 31; and natives,

769. The bulk of the native Christians are Baptists (754), that sect having a mission station at Pipplí, with 522 followers in 1881.

The native population is nominally divided according to the ancient fourfold classification of Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, Vaisyas, and Súdras. In reality, it is divided into the Bráhmans, or priests; the Kshattriyas, or royal and military class; and the Súdras, who comprise the residue of the population. In order, however, to maintain some show of keeping up the ancient fourfold division, several classes are admitted to hold a position half-way between the Súdras and the Kshattriyas. The most important of these are the Karans, who correspond to the Káyasths or writer caste of Bengal.

The bulk of the population consist of Uriyá-speaking castes, but many little colonies from other parts of India have settled in the District. There is a considerable sprinkling of Bengalis among the officials and landed classes. A number of Telingás have come from the south, and established themselves on the shores of the Chilká, and around the mouths of the rivers. Almost the whole boat traffic of the District is in their hands. The Kumtís are immigrants from the adjoinng District of Ganjám. The trading classes contain families who have come from Bhojpur, Bundelkhand, and other parts of North-Western India. A scattered Maráthá population survives from the time when the country was in the hands of their race. They live chiefly by trade, or enjoy little grants of land, and form a very respectable, although not a numerous, class. The Musalmáns, who also represent a once dominant race in Orissa, exhibit no such powers of adapting themselves to their altered circumstances. They are generally poor, proud, and discontented. They include representatives of Afghán families from beyond the confines of Northern India; but, as a rule, they are the descendants of the common soldiery, camp-followers, and low-caste Hindu converts. There are also two hill tribes, the Kandhs and the Savars or Saurás; for a furthur account of whom, see ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES.

The population of the District is entirely rural, and the only town containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants is Purí itself, with a resident population (1881) of 22,095. There are 3871 villages with less than two hundred inhabitants; 1098 with from two to five hundred; 185 with from five hundred to a thousand; 11 with from one to two thousand; and 1 with upwards of twenty thousand; total, 5166. The chief towns in the District are—PURI, the capital, and the seat of the worship of Jagannáth; population (1881) 22,095: PIPPLI, 25 miles from Purí, the centre of considerable trade in rice and cloth, and a station of the Baptist Mission: and BHUVANESWAR, the temple city of Siva, and a place of pilgrimage, containing shrines in every stage of Orissa art.

Buddhism, for ten centuries, was the prevailing religion of Orissa; but its only existing traces are to be found in the cave dwellings and rock habitations of the priests and hermits, and in recently deciphered inscriptions. Their principal settlement was at KHANDGIRI, about half-way between Purí and Cuttack. The Snake, Elephant, and Tiger Caves here (for a description of the latter see UDAYAGIRI), and a two-storied monastery, known as the Queen's Palace (RANI-NUR), are the most interesting excavations. They form relics of the three distinct phases through which Buddhism passed. The first, or ascetic age, is represented by the single sandstone cells, scarcely bigger than the lair of a wild beast, and almost as inaccessible; the second, or ceremonial age, is shown in the pillared temples for meetings of the brotherhood, with commodious chambers for the spiritual heads attached to them; the third, or fashionable age of Buddhism, reached its climax in the Queen's Palace, adorned with a sculptured biography of its founder. Sun-worship is one of the religions into which Buddhism disintegrated; and the most exquisite memorial of this is the temple of KANARAK upon the Orissa shore, now a picturesque ruin. (For a full account of these temples, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xix. pp. 72–91.)

Material Condition of the People.—The people are poor, and appear even poorer than they are. They wear inferior clothes to men of the same class in other Districts. The well-to-do settlers from the south are distinguished by their earrings and necklaces of gold. A respectable shopkeeper's house is built principally of wattle and mud. The front verandah is of brick, and the roof of thatch, firmly fixed on a good bamboo or wooden frame. The dwelling of a prosperous merchant or landholder, with an income of £100 a year, consists of a series of houses built round two courts, which lead one into the other, with the road in front of the outer court, and a garden behind the inner one. The outer court is bordered by the chambers of the male members of the family, and the inner court by the women's apartments, the family storehouses, and the cook-room. The furniture of such a house would consist of a few low bedsteads, a press or two, some wooden stools, a few broken chairs, and perhaps a striped cotton carpet for the reception-room. The dwellings of the common people consist of sheds or thatched huts built round a court. The outer apartments are used by the men, and for the cattle. The inner are devoted to the women, to the cook-room, and the storehouse.

The food of a well-to-do shopkeeper comprises the following articles:—Rice, split-peas, vegetables, fish, milk, *ghí* or clarified butter, curds, and occasionally goat's flesh. The family of a husbandman in good circumstances, consisting of six persons, and able to spend Rs. 8, or sixteen shillings, a month, would consume the following food per diem:—5 *sers* (10 lbs.) of rice, 2 *ánnás* 8 *pies*, or fourpence; vege-

tables or split-peas and fish, 6 *pies*, or three-farthings; and oil and spice, 6 *pies*, or three-farthings.

As regards occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under the following six main headings:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military, 19,459; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 4391; (3) commercial class, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 6156; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,177; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 59,519; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children and 34,637 general labourers, 210,907.

Agriculture.—No trustworthy figures are available for the area under cultivation. In 1870 it was returned at 1158 square miles, out of a then total area of 2504 square miles. For the purposes of the Census the area was taken at 2473 square miles, of which about 800,000 acres are estimated as under cultivation. Of rice crops, the following are the most important:—The *biáli, sárad, dáluá,* and *manduá.* The *sárad* or winter crop is usually transplanted, a process ensuring a much larger return. Pulses, jute, hemp, flax, and oil-seeds are also grown. Among miscellaneous crops are—tobacco, grown on low moist lands; cotton, sown early in the cold weather, and reaped in May or June, on *sárad* rice land; sugar-cane, on high land, with abundant moisture, or with capabilities for irrigation; turmeric (*haldí*); *báigun* (Solanum melongena), on homestead land; potatoes, red pepper, and *pán* or betel-leaf. Manure is sparingly employed; irrigation is effected from wells, tanks, and rivers. Rotation of crops is not very generally practised.

The total crop of rice is estimated at about 5 millions of cwts.; the cotton at about 21,000 cwts.; and the pulses at about 25,000 cwts. It is estimated that about 60,000 cwts. of rice are annually exported—one-third by sea, and two-thirds by land and the Chilká Lake; but the above figures must be received with caution. The yield per acre is from 16 to 36 cwts. of unhusked paddy, and from 8 to 16 cwts. of husked rice. The average out-turn from fair land may be put down at 10 cwts. of rice.

Thirty acres forms a large holding, and 80 acres an unusually large one. A husbandman with 10 acres is supposed to be as well off as a small retail shopkeeper, or a servant earning about Rs. 8, or 16s., a month. The husbandman dresses worse, but he has more to eat. The cultivators, as a class, are deeply in debt to the landholders, who make advances of money and rice to their tenants. A large proportion of them hold at fixed rates, and represent the *thání ráyats* of the Settlement papers, who hold their land under leases (*kálipattás*), granted by the Settlement officers in 1836–37, and remaining in force until the next Settlement in 1897. The average rates of rent in Purí District vary from 6s. 3d. in the deltaic upland to 3s. 3d. in the neighbourhood

of the Chilká Lake. The average for *sárad* rice land yielding only one crop is 5s. 10d. per acre ; for the same land yielding a second crop of cotton, 6s. 3d. Of land suited to special crops, sugar-cane land fetches 10s. per acre ; tobacco land, 14s. ; and *pán* land, £1, 5s.

Wages are lower in Purí than in Cuttack or Balasor. The most common rate of wages for permanent employment is Rs. 2, or 4s., per month, with a suit of cold-weather and warm-weather clothing: altogether, this would be in money Rs. 24, or £2, 8s., a year; in clothes, Rs. 3, or 6s. ; and in occasional donations, Rs. 6, or 12s. : in all, Rs. 33, or £3, 6s., a year. For occasional labour, the rate is from 3d. to 4d. per diem. Skilled labour fetches about 6d. a day. In salt manufacture, the rate of remuneration is 2 annas, or 3d., per *maund* (82 lbs.) of the out-turn, all at the risk of the labourer. It takes four men to make 400 *maunds* of salt in a fair season of three months; and in the end it has been estimated that they will receive only Rs. 50, or £5. The average price of rice (calculated from the prices between 1871 and 1874) was—in Purí Sub-division, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt., and in Khurdhá Sub-division, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt. The average price of pulses in Khurdhá was 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt. In 1883-84, the price of common rice was 24¼ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 7½d. per cwt. ; and of wheat 11¾ *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 6d. per cwt. The price of ordinary coarse rice has doubled within the last thirty years. Thus people are working at the same rate of wages now, when a rupee buys only about 25 *sers* of rice, as prevailed formerly when 64 *sers* could be bought for the same sum.

Natural Calamities.—The District is liable to disastrous floods and famines. Of the thirty-two years ending 1866, twenty-four were years of flood so serious as to require remissions of revenue to the extent of £41,993. If to this we add £1393 remitted for the drought in 1865-66, we have a total loss of £43,386. At the same time, the sum of £35,577 had been expended by Government on embankments and other protective works. In 7 villages, on the north of the Chilká, one-fourth of the whole area is exempt from assessment on account of its exposure to inundation. By the flood of 1866, more than 412,000 persons were driven suddenly out of house and home into the midst of a sea between 7 and 9 feet deep. The unhappy inhabitants of this region live in a constant state of preparation. Most of the hamlets have boats tied to the houses; and for miles, the high thatched roofs are firmly held down by bamboo stakes, so as to afford a refuge in time of flood. In 1866 the destruction of human life was great; the cattle, too, suffered terribly. Inundations are, as a rule, more calamitous than droughts, for, even if the rivers fail, the Province has its own local annual rainfall of 55 inches in reserve. The famine of 1866 is estimated to have caused a mortality of not less than 35·81 per cent.

on a population returned in that year at 588,841. (For a further account of the great famine of 1866, see ORISSA.)

Manufactures, etc.—Apart from a little weaving and pottery-making, the only manufacture of Purí is salt, which is made by solar evaporation, principally in Párikud and the tract to the north and east of the Chilká Lake. The process has already been described in the article on PARIKUD. Speaking generally, a Párikud salt-field consists of a little canal from the Chilká 'workings,' diverging at right angles upon either side. Each working is composed of a row of four tanks and a network of shallow pools, and is managed by from three to five men, who are paid by results, and earn about Rs. 3, or 6s., a month. The total cost of salt made in this way is about 8d. per cwt. In 1875–76, the total amount of salt manufactured in Purí was 67,170 *maunds*, realizing £38,544. In 1882–83, 120,407 *maunds* of salt were manufactured in Purí District. The value of the sea-borne trade of the District in 1874–75 was £6066; 32 vessels, with a tonnage of 10,553, entered Purí Port. In 1883–84, 38 vessels entered, and the same number cleared from Purí Port in 1883–84, of a total burthen of 159,045 tons; value of imports, £21,253; exports, £67,260. In January 1876, a system of traffic registration was introduced on the Grand Trunk Road between Calcutta and Madras, the registering station being at Rambhá, on the Chilká Lake, just beyond the Purí frontier. The chief exports from Purí are pulses, rice, vegetables, metals, salt, drugs, cotton, and silk goods. The imports include salt, unrefined sugar, and spices. The two main lines of road in Purí District are the Calcutta and Madras Trunk Road, and the Pilgrim Road from Cuttack to Purí.

Administration.—In 1877–78, the revenue of Purí District was returned at £62,512. In 1883–84, the six principal items of the District revenue aggregated £67,773, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £47,369; excise, £9207; stamps, £6896; registration, £554; road cess, £2555; and municipal rates, £1192. The land-tax amounted to £44,707 in 1829–30, to £45,973 in 1850–51, to £47,963 in 1870–71, and to £47,369 in 1883–84. Between 1850 and 1883–84, the number of separate estates had risen from 272 to 458, and the number of proprietors from 910 to 7252. Average payment by each estate in 1883–84, £103, 8s. 6d., by each individual proprietor, £6, 10s. 7d.

In 1828–29 there were only three courts, revenue and judicial, in the District; in 1850 there were 7; in 1883–84, 8. In 1828–29 there was only 1 covenanted officer; there are now (1884) 3. The regular and municipal police force in 1883 consisted of 426 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6847. There is also a rural or village police, numbering 2045 in 1883, and maintained at an estimated cost both in

money and lands of £2517. The total machinery, therefore, for protecting person and property consisted of 2471 officers and men, giving 1 man to every square mile of area, or to every 360 of population. Total estimated cost, £9364, equal to an average of £3, 15s. 8½d. per square mile of area, or 2⅓d. per head of population. The total number of persons convicted of an offence in 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases in 1883, was 2151, or 1 to every 413 of the population. There are 2 jails in Purí, namely the District jail at the civil station, and a Sub-divisional lock-up at Khurdhá. In 1883 the daily average number of prisoners was 98, of whom 4·50 were females.

In 1872–73, the number of inspected schools was 112, attended by 2802 pupils. By March 1884, as the result of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms, the number of schools brought under the inspection of the Educational Department had risen to upwards of 2000, and the pupils to 20,000. The Census Report of 1881 returned 14,521 boys and 1081 girls as under instruction, besides 29,157 males and 1460 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. A Sanskrit school has been established in Purí town.

The District contains one municipality, namely Purí town. The municipal income in 1876–77 amounted to £914, and in 1883–84 to £1927; average incidence of taxation (1883–84), 11¾d. per head of population (24,336) within municipal limits.

Temperature, etc.—The average annual rainfall is 56·24 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are malarial fever in all its varieties, elephantiasis, dysentery, and cholera. Fairs and religious gatherings are the great predisposing causes of epidemics. The Purí pilgrim hospital and dispensary is the principal medical charity of the District; branch dispensaries at Khurdhá and Pipplí. These hospitals and dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1883–84 to 559 in-door and 12,326 out-door patients. The total number of deaths registered in Purí District in 1883 was 18,019, equal to a death-rate of 20·28 per thousand. The principal cattle diseases are *gutí*, or cattle small-pox, and *phátuá*, or hoof-disease, which occasionally break out in an epidemic form, and are extremely fatal. [For further particulars regarding Purí, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xviii. pp. 17–192 (Trübner & Co., London, 1877). Also *Report of the Commissioners to enquire into the Famine in Bengal and Orissa in* 1866; the *Bengal Census Reports* for 1872 and 1881; and the several annual Bengal Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Purí.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Purí District, Bengal. Area, 1530 square miles; villages, 3852; houses, 97,132. Population (1881) 565,082, namely, males 284,748, and females 280,334. Hindus number 557,379; Muhammadans, 7114; and Christians, 589. Average number of persons per square mile, 369; villages per square mile, 2·52; persons

per village, 146; houses per square mile, 72·7; inmates per house, 5·8. This Sub-division includes the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Purí, Gop, and Pipplí. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 5 magisterial courts; with a regular police force numbering 311 officers and men, and a village watch or rural police 1638 strong.

Purí (commonly known as *Jagannáth*).—Chief town of Purí District, Bengal; situated on the coast, in lat. 19° 48′ 17″ N., and long. 85° 51′ 39″ E., separated from the sea by low sandy ridges. In 1825, according to Stirling, it contained 5741 houses. In 1841 the houses numbered 6620, inhabited by 23,766 persons. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 22,695, of whom 12,077 were males and 10,618 females. In 1881 the population was returned at 22,095, namely, males 11,769, and females 10,326. Municipal income (1883–84), £1927. The number of Hindus in 1881 was 21,913; of Muhammadans, 181; and 'other,' 1. This is the ordinary resident population, but during the great festivals of Jagannáth the number is sometimes swollen by as many as a hundred thousand pilgrims.

Purí covers an area of 1837 acres, including the whole *kshetra* or sacred precincts of the town. It is a city of lodging-houses, being destitute alike of manufactures or commerce on any considerable scale. The streets are mean and narrow, with the exception of the principal avenue, which leads from the temple to the country-house of Jagannáth. The houses are built of wattle covered with clay, raised on platforms of hard mud, about 4 feet high, and many of them gaily painted with Hindu gods, or with scenes from the Sanskrit epics. The intervening sandhills between the town and the beach intercept the drainage, and aggravate the diseases to which the overcrowding of the pilgrims gives rise.

The sanitary measures which have been taken for the improvement of the town are of three kinds,—the first directed to lessen the number of pilgrims; the second, to mitigate the dangers of the road; and the third, to prevent epidemics in the town. In seasons of cholera or other great calamity in Orissa, it would be possible to check the pilgrim stream, by giving warning in the Government *Gazette*, and through the medium of the vernacular papers. This was done in the famine year 1866, and native opinion supported the action of Government. But such interference is resorted to only under extreme circumstances. The second set of preventive measures can be applied with greater ease, and with more certain results. Thousands of pilgrims die annually upon the journey from exhaustion and want of food, nor does it seem possible to lessen the number of deaths from these causes. Within the last twenty years, pilgrim hospitals have been opened along the main lines of road, and a medical patrol has been, through the energy and devotion of the Civil Surgeon of Purí, established in the vicinity of the

holy city. Great good has been effected by these means; but a heavy drawback to their utility consists in the fact that the devotees will only enter an hospital at the last extremity, and the surgeons say that the great majority of pilgrim patients are beyond the reach of aid when they are brought in.

Cuttack city, the capital of Orissa, formerly suffered terribly from the passage of the pilgrim army; but a sanitary cordon is now maintained, and the result upon the public health has been marvellous. This inexpensive quarantine might easily be applied to other municipalities along the pilgrim highway. The devotees suffer no inconvenience; for as soon as the change in their route is known, little hamlets of grain-sellers spring up outside the cordon. Indeed, the pilgrims would be gainers by the change, in so far as they could purchase their food free of octroi or other municipal charges, where such dues are enforced.

The great difficulty has been to check the overcrowding in Purí town. In 1866, a Bill was introduced into the Bengal Council for the better regulation of the lodging-houses for pilgrims, and finally passed with amendments in 1868. It provides for the appointment of a health officer, to inspect the lodging-houses, and report on them to the Magistrate. Under this Act, no house may be opened without a licence; and licences are granted only upon a certificate from the surgeon, stating the suitability of the tenement for the purpose, and the number of persons which it can properly accommodate. Except in cases where the lodging-house keepers are persons of known respectability, their establishments continue under the surveillance of the health officer, and penalties are provided for wilful overcrowding, and similar breaches of the licence. Much good has resulted from the operation of this Act.

The Government offices lie upon the beach, with the sandy ridge between them and the town. The site is salubrious; but the dwellings of the English residents barely number 6 thatched cottages, much out of repair. The monsoon blows so fresh and cool from the sea, that in former days the officials from Cuttack used regularly to come to Purí during the hot weather. During the rains it is less healthy.

The following description of the shrine of Jagannáth at Purí is condensed from the present author's *Orissa* (vol. i. chaps. 3 and 4):—

For two thousand years, Orissa has been the Holy Land of the Hindus; and from the moment the pilgrim passes the Baitaraní river, on the high road 40 miles north-east of Cuttack, he treads on holy ground. The Province is divided into four great regions of pilgrimage. On crossing the stream, the devotee enters Jájpur (lit. 'City of Sacrifice'), sacred to Párvatí, the wife of Siva. To the south-east lie the matchless ruins, the relics of sun-worship in Orissa; to the south-west, the temple city of Siva; and beyond this, nearly due south, is the

region of pilgrimage beloved of Vishnu, known to every hamlet throughout India as the abode of Jagannáth, the Lord of the World.

As the outlying position of Orissa long saved it from conquest, and from that desecration of ancient Hindu shrines and rites which marks the Muhammadan line of march through India, so Purí, built upon its extreme south-eastern shore, and protected on the one side by the surf, and on the other by swamps and inundations, is the corner of Orissa which has been most left to itself. On these inhospitable sands, Hindu religion and Hindu superstition have stood at bay for eighteen centuries against the world. Here is the national temple, whither the people flock to worship from every Province of India. Here is the Swarga-dwára, the Gate of Heaven, whither thousands of pilgrims come to die, lulled to their last sleep by the roar of the ocean.

This great yearning after Jagannáth is to some extent the result of centuries of companionship in suffering between the people and their god. In every disaster of Orissa, Jagannáth has borne his share. In every flight of the people before an invading power, he has been their companion. The priests, indeed, put the claims of their god upon higher ground. 'In the first boundless space' they say, 'dwelt the Great God, whom men call Náráyan, or Parameswara, or Jagannáth.' But without venturing beyond this world's history, the earliest of Orissa traditions discloses Purí as the refuge of an exiled creed. In the uncertain dawn of Indian history, the highly spiritual doctrines of Buddha obtained shelter here; and the Golden Tooth of the founder of the Buddhist faith remained for centuries at Purí, then the Jerusalem of the Buddhists, as it has been for centuries that of the Hindus.

Jagannáth makes his first historical appearance in the year 318 A.D., when the priests fled with the sacred image and left an empty city to Rakta Bahu and his buccaneers (see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xviii. p. 182). For a century and a half the idol remained buried in the western jungles, till a pious prince drove out the foreigners and brought back the deity. Three times it has been buried in the Chilká Lake; and whether the invaders were pirates from the sea, or the devouring cavalry of Afghánistán, the first thing that the people saved was their god.

The true source of Jagannáth's undying hold upon the Hindu race consists in the fact that he is the god of the people. The poor outcast learns that there is a city on the far eastern shore, in which priest and peasant are equal in the presence of the 'Lord of the World.' In the courts of Jagannáth, and outside the Lion Gate, 100,000 pilgrims every year join in the sacrament of eating the holy food, the sanctity of which overleaps all barriers of caste, race, and hostile faiths. A Purí priest will receive food from a Christian's hand. The

worship of Jagannáth, too, aims at a Catholicism which embraces every form of Indian belief and every Indian conception of the deity. He is Vishnu, under whatever form and by whatever title men call upon his name. The fetishism of the aboriginal races, the mild flower-worship of the Vedas, and the lofty spiritualities of the great Indian reformers, have alike found refuge here. Besides thus representing Vishnu in all his manifestations, the priests have superadded the worship of the other members of the Hindu trinity in their various shapes; and the disciple of every Hindu sect can find his beloved rites, and some form of his chosen deity, within the sacred precincts.

In the legendary origin of Jagannáth (see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xix. pp. 43–46), we find the aboriginal people worshipping a blue stone in the depths of the forest. But the deity at length wearies of primitive jungle offerings, and longs for the cooked food of the more civilised Aryans, upon whose arrival on the scene the rude blue stone gives place to a carved image. At the present day, in every hamlet of Orissa, this twofold worship co-exists. The common people have their shapeless stone or block, which they adore with simple rites in the open air; while side by side with it stands a temple to one of the Aryan gods, with its carved idol and elaborate rites. Whenever the villagers are questioned about their creed, the same answer is invariably given. 'The common people have no idea of religion, but to do right, and to worship the village god.'

The first part of the legend of Jagannáth shadows forth the original importation of Vishnu-worship by an Aryan king from the north-west, and its amalgamation with the aboriginal rites existing in Orissa. It is noteworthy, that although a Bráhman figures in this as in all of the religious legends of the Hindus, he is not the principal person. An ancient text mentions Vishnu as the special god of the kingly and warrior caste; and it is the king who plays the chief part in introducing his worship.

The worship of Vishnu was not the first form of Aryan faith in these remote jungles. For centuries before the birth of Christ, the rock caves of Orissa resounded with the chants of Buddhist monks. But about the 4th century of our era, Buddhism gradually gave way to other developments of spiritual life, which took the form of Siva-worship. The great temple city of Siva, BHUVANESWAR, dates from the 7th century.

Both Sivaism and Vishnuism were attempts to bring the gods down to men. The former plunged boldly into the abyss of superstition, and erected its empire without shame or scruple upon the ignorance and terrors of the people. The worship of Vishnu shrank from such lengths, and tried to create a system wide enough and

strong enough for a national religion, by mixing a somewhat less base alloy with the fine gold of Aryan spirituality. It was a religion in all things graceful. Its gods are bright, friendly beings, who walk and converse with men. Its legends breathe an almost Grecian beauty. But pastoral simplicities and an exquisite ritual had no chance against a system like Sivaism, that pandered to the grossest superstition of the masses.

In the 11th century, the Vishnuite doctrines were gathered into a great religious treatise, which forms one of the 18 *Purānas* or 'Ancient Sayings' devoted to Hindu mythology and legendary history. The *Vishnu Purána*, dating from about 1045 A.D., starts with an intolerance equal to that of the ancient code of Manu; and its stately theogony disdains to touch the legends of the people. Its cosmography is confined to the Aryan world. It declares, indeed, that there is one God; but this God is the God of the Bráhmans, to whom he has given the earth as an inheritance, and in whose eyes the ancient races are as demons or wild beasts. Vishnuism had to preach a far different doctrine before it could become, as it has for ages been, the popular religion of Orissa.

From the 12th century a curious change took place. Jagannáth, who had ever been the companion of the ruling race in Orissa, began to appeal to the eternal instincts of human liberty and equality. The movement first commenced in Southern India, where Rámánuja about 1150 A.D. preached from city to city the unity of God under the title of Vishnu, the Cause and the Creator of all. The preacher made converts from every class, but it was reserved for his successors formally to enunciate equality of caste before God as an article of the Vishnuite faith.

In 1174 A.D., King Anang Bhim Deo ascended the throne of Orissa. He ruled all the country from the Húglí river on the north to the Godávari on the south, and from the forests of Sonpur on the west, eastward to the Bay of Bengal. But in the midst of his prosperity he was struck down by a great calamity. He unhappily slew a Bráhman; and the rest of his life became one grand expiation of his guilt. Tradition relates that he bridged ten broad rivers, constructed 152 *gháts* or landing-stages, and countless other public works. Among the temples that he built was the shrine of Jagannáth. Gold and jewels to the value of a million and a half measures of gold were set apart for the work, being estimated at half a million sterling in the money of our time. For fourteen years the artificers laboured, and the temple was finished, as it now stands, in 1198 A.D.

At the end of the 13th century, according to some authorities—at the end of the 14th, according to others—the great reformation took place, which made Vishnu-worship a national religion in India. Rámánand

and Kabír (1380–1420 A.D.) were the first reformers. The moral code of the latter consists in humanity, truthfulness, retirement, and obedience to the spiritual guide. Kabír was followed by Chaitanya, the great próphet of Orissa, who was born in 1485, and miraculously disappeared in 1527. According to his doctrine, no caste and no race was beyond the pale of salvation. Chaitanya is the apostle of the common people, being generally adored in connection with Vishnu; and of such joint temples there are at present 800 in the Province.

The death of this reformer marks the beginning of the spiritual decline of Vishnu-worship. As early as 1520, a new teacher, Vallabha-Swámí, appeared in Northern India, preaching that God was not to be sought in nakedness, hunger, and solitude, but amid the enjoyments of this world. Vishnu was adored in his pastoral incarnation as Krishna, leading a glorious Arcadian life in the forest, and surrounded by everything that appeals to the sensuousness of a tropical race. His great annual ceremony is the Car Festival, hereafter to be described. In a religion of this sort, great abuses are inevitable. The most deplorable of its corruptions at the present day is that which has covered the temple walls with indecent sculptures, and filled their innermost sanctuaries with licentious rites. It is very difficult for a person not a Hindu to pronounce upon the real extent of this evil. None but a Hindu can enter any of the larger temples, and none but a Hindu priest really knows the truth about their inner mysteries. But between Vishnuism and Love-worship there is but a step, and this step has been formally and publicly taken by a large sect of Vishnuites.

The devotion of centuries has made Jagannáth a very wealthy god; but it is difficult to form anything like an accurate estimate of his present income. During the twenty-one years ending 1831, the pilgrim tax yielded a net total of £139,000, or £6619 a year, after deducting £5955 a year from the gross returns for the temple expenses and charges. It was felt, however, that the money thus received was to a certain extent the price of a State sanction to idolatry, and in 1840 the Government abolished the tax, and made over the entire management of the temple to the Rájás of Khurdhá. A moderate computation estimated the offerings to the priests at twice the gross sum which the British officers realized as pilgrim tax; and now that the tax is withdrawn and the pilgrims enter the city so much the richer, the oblations cannot fall much short of three times the amount. This would yield a yearly sum of £37,000, which, added to the £4000 derived from the temple lands, and to the revenues of the religious houses valued at £27,000, makes the total income of Jagannáth not less than £68,000 per annum. It may be mentioned that Ranjít Singh bequeathed the celebrated

Koh-i-Núr diamond, now one of the Crown jewels of England, to Jagannáth.

The immediate attendants on the god are divided into 36 orders and 97 classes, at the head of whom is the Rájá of Khurdhá, the representative of the ancient royal house of Orissa, who takes upon himself the lowly office of sweeper to Jagannáth. Decorators of the idol, priests of the wardrobe, cooks, dancing-girls, grooms, and artisans of every sort, follow. A special department keeps up the temple records, and affords a literary asylum to a few learned men.

The Temple.—The sacred enclosure is nearly in the form of a square, 652 feet long, and 630 broad. The interior is protected from profane eyes by a massive stone wall 20 feet high. Within rise about 120 temples, dedicated to the various forms in which the Hindu mind has imagined its god. But the great pagoda is the one dedicated to Jagannáth. Its conical tower rises like an elaborately carved sugar-loaf, 192 feet high, black with time, and surmounted by the mystic wheel and flag of Vishnu. Outside the principal entrance, or Lion Gate, in the square where the pilgrims chiefly throng, is an exquisite monolithic pillar which stood for centuries before the Temple of the Sun, twenty miles up the coast. The temple of Jagannáth consists of 4 chambers, communicating with each other, viz.—the Hall of Offerings; the Pillared Hall for the musicians and dancing-girls; the Hall of Audience; and, lastly, the Sanctuary itself, containing rude images of Jagannáth, his brother Balabhadra, and his sister Subhadrá. Jagannáth is represented without arms. The service of the temple consists partly in a daily round of oblations, and partly in sumptuous ceremonials at stated periods throughout the year. The offerings are bloodless; but, nevertheless, within the sacred enclosure is a shrine to Bimalá, the 'stainless' queen of the All-Destroyer, who is annually adored with bloody sacrifices. Twenty-four festivals are held, consisting chiefly of Vishnuite commemorations, but freely admitting the ceremonials of other sects. At the Red Powder Festival, Vishnu and Siva enjoy equal honours; in the festival of the slaughter of the deadly cobra-de-capello (Kálí damana), the familiar of Siva and his queen, the supremacy of Vishnu is declared.

But the Car Festival is the great event of the year. It takes place in June or July, and for weeks beforehand the whole District is in a ferment. The great car is 45 feet in height and 35 feet square, and is supported on 16 wheels of 7 feet diameter. The brother and sister of Jagannáth have separate cars a few feet smaller. When the sacred images are at length brought forth and placed upon their chariots, thousands fall on their knees and bow their foreheads in the dust. The vast multitude shouts with one throat, and, surging back-

wards and forwards, drags the wheeled edifices down the broad streets towards the country-house of lord Jagannáth. Music strikes up before and behind, drums beat, cymbals clash, the priests harangue from the cars, or shout a sort of fescennine medley enlivened with broad allusions and coarse gestures, which are received with roars of laughter by the crowd.

The distance from the temple to the country-house is less than a mile; but the wheels sink deep into the sand, and the journey takes several days. After hours of severe toil and wild excitement in the tropical sun, a reaction necessarily follows. The zeal of the pilgrims flags before the garden-house is reached; and the cars, deserted by the devotees, are dragged along by the professional pullers with deep-drawn grunts and groans. These men, 4200 in number, are peasants from the neighbouring fiscal divisions, who generally manage to live at free quarters in Purí during the festival. Once arrived at the country-house, the enthusiasm subsides. The pilgrims drop exhausted upon the burning sand of the sacred street, or block up the lanes with their prostrate bodies. When they have slept off their excitement, they rise refreshed and ready for another of the strong religious stimulants of the season. Lord Jagannáth is left to get back to his temple as best he can, and but for the professional car-pullers, would inevitably be left at his country-house.

In a closely-packed, eager throng of a hundred thousand men and women, many of them unaccustomed to exposure or labour, and all of them tugging and straining at the cars to the utmost under a blazing sun, deaths must occasionally occur. There have, doubtless, been instances of pilgrims throwing themselves under the wheels in a frenzy of religious excitement; but such instances have always been rare, and are now almost unknown. At one time, several people were killed or injured every year, but these were almost invariably the result of accidental trampling. The few cases of suicide that did occur were for the most part those of diseased and miserable objects, who took this means to put themselves out of pain. The official returns place this beyond doubt. Nothing, indeed, could be more opposed to the spirit of Vishnu-worship than self-immolation. Accidental death within the temple renders the whole place unclean. The copious literature of the sect of Chaitanya makes no allusion to self-sacrifice, and contains no passage that could be twisted into a sanction for it.

The temple of Jagannáth, that *colluvio religionum*, in which every creed obtained an asylum, and in which every sect can find its god, now closes its gates against the low-caste population. Speaking generally, only those are excluded who retain the flesh-eating and animal-life-destroying propensities of the aboriginal tribes; wine-sellers, sweepers, skinners, corpse-bearers, are also shut out.

Day and night throughout every month of the year, troops of devotees arrive at Purí; and for 300 miles along the great Orissa road, every village has its pilgrim encampment. The pilgrims to the shrine of Jagannáth are a motley assemblage, at least five-sixths of whom are women. Ninety-five out of a hundred come on foot. Mixed with the throng are devotees of various sorts,—some covered with ashes; some almost naked; some with matted, yellow-stained hair; almost all with their foreheads streaked with red or white, a string of beads round their necks, and a stout staff in their hands. But the greatest spectacle is a north-country Rájá, with his caravan of elephants, camels, led horses, and swordsmen, followed by all the indescribable confusion of Indian royalty.

The vast spiritual army that thus marches its hundreds, and sometimes its thousands, of miles, along burning roads, across unbridged rivers, and through pestilent regions of jungle and swamp, is annually recruited with as much tact and regularity as is bestowed on any military force. Attached to the temple is a body of emissaries, called pilgrim guides, numbering about 3000 men, who wander from village to village within their allotted beats, preaching pilgrimage as the liberation from sin.

A good part of the distance can now be accomplished by rail, but the northern pilgrims walk, as a rule, from 300 to 600 miles, although recently a steamboat service between Calcutta and Orissa is attracting a steadily increasing number of pilgrims. The guide tries to keep up the spirits of the wayfarers, and once within sight of the holy city, the pains and miseries of the journey are forgotten. The dirty bundles of rags now yield their inner treasures of spotless cotton, and the pilgrims, refreshed and robed in clean garments, proceed to the temple. As they pass the Lion Gate, a man of the sweeper caste strikes them with his broom to purify them of their sins, and forces them to promise, on pain of losing all the benefits of pilgrimage, not to disclose the events of the journey or the secrets of the shrine. In a few days the excitement subsides. At first nothing can exceed the liberality of the pilgrims to their spiritual guides; but thoughts of their return journey soon enter their minds, and the last few days of their stay are spent in scheming a speedy departure, with as few more payments as possible. Every day the pilgrims bathe in one of the sacred lakes, and at the principal one 5000 bathers may be seen at once. At the great festival, as many as 40,000 rush together into the surf at the 'Gate of Heaven,' a tract extending about a quarter of a mile along the coast.

No trustworthy statistics exist as to the number of pilgrims who visit Jagannáth. But a native gentleman, who has spent his life on the spot, has published as his opinion that the number never falls short of 50,000 a year, and sometimes amounts to 300,000. At the Car Festival, food is cooked in the temple kitchen for 90,000 devotees; at

another festival for 70,000. The old registers, during the period when the pilgrim tax was levied, notoriously fell below the truth; yet in five out of the ten years between 1820 and 1829, the official return amounted to between one and two hundred thousand. The pilgrims from the south are a mere handful compared with those who come from Bengal and Northern India, yet it has been ascertained that 65,000 find their way to Purí, across the Chilká Lake, in two months alone. As many as 9613 were actually counted by the police leaving Purí on a single day, and 19,209 during the last six days in June. The records of the missionaries in Orissa estimate the number of the pilgrims present at the Car Festival alone, in some years, as high as 145,000.

Pilgrim Mortality.—The predisposing causes to disease among the pilgrims are bad food, the unhealthiness of Purí town, and the crowding together in the lodging-houses. The priests impress upon the pilgrims the impropriety of dressing food within the holy city, and the temple kitchen thus secures the monopoly of cooking for the multitude. The food consists chiefly of boiled rice, which is considered too sacred for the least fragment to be thrown away. Consequently, it is consumed by some one or other, whatever its state of putrefaction, to the very last morsel. As a rule, the houses in Purí consist of two or three cells communicating with each other, without windows or ventilation of any kind. The city contains upwards of six thousand houses, and a resident population, in 1881, of 22,095.

'I was shown one apartment,' says Dr. Mouat, late Inspector-General of Jails, 'in the best pilgrim hotel of the place, in which 80 persons were said to have passed the night. It was 13 feet long, 10 feet 5 inches broad, with side walls 6½ feet in height, and a low pent roof over it. It had but one entrance, and no escape for the effete air. If this be the normal state of the best lodging-house in the broad main street of Purí, it is not difficult to imagine the condition of the worst, in the narrow, confined, undrained back-slums of the town.' About the time of the Car Festival, there can be no doubt that as many as 90,000 people are often packed for weeks together in the 5000 lodging-houses of Purí. At certain seasons of the year the misery is mitigated by sleeping out of doors, but the Car Festival unfortunately happens at the beginning of the rains. Cholera invariably breaks out during this time.

But it is on the return journey that the wretchedness of the pilgrims reaches its climax; and it is impossible to compute, with anything like accuracy, the numbers that then perish. After the Car Festival, they find every stream flooded; and even those who can pay have often to sit for days in the rain on the bank, before a boat will venture on the ungovernable torrent. Hundreds die upon the road-

side. The missionaries along the line of march have ascertained that pilgrims sometimes travel 40 miles a day, until at last they drop from sheer fatigue. Those are most happy whom insensibility overtakes in some English station, for they are then taken into hospital. Personal inquiries among the pilgrims led to the conclusion that, up to 1870, the deaths in the city and by the way seldom fell below one-eighth, and often amounted to one-fifth, of each company; and the Sanitary Commissioner for Bengal accepts this estimate. It is impossible to reckon the total number of the poorer sort who travel on foot at less than 84,000. It is equally impossible to reckon their deaths in Purí and on the road at less than one-seventh, or 12,000 a year. Deducting 2000 for the ordinary death-rate, we have a net slaughter of 10,000 per annum.

It may well be supposed that the British Government has not looked unmoved on this appalling spectacle, to which nothing but a total prohibition of pilgrimage could put a stop. But such a prohibition would amount to an interdict on one of the most cherished religious privileges, and would be regarded by every Hindu throughout India as a national wrong. The subject has come up from time to time for official discussion; and in 1867, circular letters were sent to every Division of Bengal. The pilgrims' lodging-houses in Purí have been placed under special Acts; a system of sanitary surveillance and quarantine introduced; and pilgrims' hospitals established along the great line of road. These efforts to reduce the loss of life to a minimum have been described in a previous section of this article.

Purla Kimidi.—Ancient *zamíndárí* and town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* Parla Kimedi and Kimedi.

Purna (the ancient *Payoshni*).—River of Berar, having its source in the Sátpura range, lat. 21° N., long. 76° 14′ E. It flows through Akola District from east to west, almost equidistant from the ranges of hills which bound the valley north and south. It is not navigable by boats. The banks, though soft, seem to a great extent to have resisted erosion by the water, but there are exceptions; some villages on the south bank, notably Wagoli, have had to move southwards, gradually losing their ground to the north. The Purna has many tributary streams, of which the chief are the Káta Purna, the Múrna, the Mán, the Ghán, the Sháhnúr, the Chandra Bhága, and the Wán. Towards the end of its course in Berar, the Purna for a space bounds the Districts of Akola and Buldáná, and, passing beyond the latter into Khándesh, joins the Tápti about 20 miles below Burhánpur. In the valley of the Purna lie some of the richest cotton-producing tracts of Berar.

Purnabhabá.—River of Bengal; rises in the Bráhmanpukhur Marsh in the District of Dinájpur, and flows southwards for about 72 miles, until it enters Maldah District. Here it takes a south-

westerly direction, passing through the dense *kátál* or highland jungle occupying the eastern portion of Maldah District, and joins the Mahánandá in lat. 24° 50′ N., and long. 88° 21′ E., about a mile below the ancient Muhammadan grain mart of Rohanpur, which was formerly fortified as one of the approaches to Gaur by way of the Mahánandá. The chief tributaries of the Purnabhabá in Dinájpur are the Dhepá, Nartá, Siáldángá, Ghágrá, Hánchá-Katákhál, and Harbhángá, on the east or left bank; and the Miná on the west or right bank. Its bed is sandy, and very deep in the upland tract, where the banks are steep; elsewhere they are sloping or abrupt, according as the current sets from one side of the river to the other; generally speaking, they are jungly and uncultivated. The river is navigable throughout its course by large boats in the rains, and by small boats during the dry season. During the rainy months, the basin of the Purnabhabá is entirely filled by the flood of waters which come down from the high land of the *kátál*, rising above the river banks; and at that season it may be said to expand into one vast lake, extending over a very wide area of adjoining low land.

Purngarh.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 48′ N., long. 73° 20′ E. Twelve miles south of Ratnágiri. Population (1872) 512. The river Machkundi admits only vessels of small size. One of the ports of the Ratnágiri Customs Division. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—imports, £5810, and exports, £4350. Fort.

Purniah.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 87° 1′ and 88° 33′ E. long. Area, 4956 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1881) 1,848,687. Purniah forms the north-eastern District of the Bhágalpur Division. It is bounded on the north by the State of Nepál and Dárjíling District; on the east by the Districts of Jalpáigurí, Dinájpur, and Maldah; on the south by the river Ganges, which separates it from the Districts of Bhágalpur and the Santál Parganás; and on the west by Bhágalpur. The administrative head-quarters are at PURNIAH town, which is also the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Purniah District forms a north-western extension of the great deltaic plain of Bengal proper. With the exception of a small hill of nodular limestone (*kankar*) near Manihárí in the south of the District, and a few tracts of undulating country in the north bordering on Nepál, the whole presents an almost dead level.

As regards physical character, Purniah may be divided into two portions of nearly equal size. East of a line running from the point where the Panár river enters the District, to the town of Purniah, and then trending southward and eastward to Manihárí, the soil is

composed of a rich loam of alluvial formation, intersected by rivers and natural canals, by means of which nearly every part of it is accessible during the dry season. Large marshes also exist, which do not completely dry up at any period of the year. In this tract, rice is the great staple of cultivation, except in the north, in Krishnaganj Sub-Division, where jute and tobacco occupy a considerable area.

In the western half of the District the physical features of the country are different. The soil is here thickly overlaid with sand deposited by the Kusí in the course of its westward movement, and is but little cultivated. This tract spreads out from the vicinity of Purniah town, chiefly to the north and west, in the form of radiating stretches of land, opening out occasionally into fine grassy, prairie-like plains. These afford pasturage to great herds of cattle, and towards the south to numerous flocks of sheep. Villages are much rarer here than in the east of the District, and the huts comprising them are smaller and much less comfortable.

The rivers of Purniah group themselves into three systems, all tributary to the Ganges, which forms the southern boundary of the District. The Kusi forms the principal feature in the hydrography of the District. This river takes its rise in the Nepál Himálayas, being formed by three principal hill torrents; and on reaching British territory, it is already a large river nearly a mile wide. The Kusí is remarkable for the rapidity of its current, and for the uncertain nature of its bed. It has a constant westerly movement, so that the present bed of the river is many miles distant from the channel shown on old maps. Owing to these characteristics, its navigation is at all times a matter of much difficulty. The channels of deep water are constantly changing, new ones being yearly opened up, and old ones choked by vast sandbanks. The Kusí is navigable throughout the year by boats of about 9 tons burthen as far as the Nepál frontier, and by boats of 25 or 30 tons in the lower portions of its course. Boats of any size proceeding up or down the river require to be preceded by a regular Kusí pilot, who goes some distance in advance, and selects the channel to be followed. The minor tributaries of the Kusí on its right or west bank, the Nágardhár, Mará Hiran, and Rájmohan, have now nearly disappeared, their courses being almost entirely obliterated by the westward movement of the main stream. The Kálá Kusí, the most clearly marked of the old beds of the Kusí, still preserves to some extent the appearance of a river, but with many diverging, reuniting, and interlacing channels. It runs southwards from Arariyá, past Purniah town, where it receives its principal tributary, the Saurá, and continues its southerly course, often by several beds, till it falls into the Ganges nearly opposite Sáhibganj.

The PANAR river is formed in the Matiyárí police circle by the confluence of a number of hill streams from Nepál. It flows a south-easterly and southerly course, passing about ten miles east of Purniah town, and joining the Ganges in the extreme south-east of the District. It is navigable by boats of 3½ tons from a short distance below the Nepál frontier to the neighbourhood of Purniah town, and afterwards by boats of about 9 tons to the Ganges.

The MAHANANDA, which rises in the lower mountains of Sikkim, touches on Purniah District at Phánsídewa, in the extreme north-east corner, and forms the eastern boundary of the District for about eight miles, as far as Titalya, from whence it flows first westwards, then southwards, and afterwards eastwards by a circuitous course, with several tributaries on both banks, till it passes into Maldah District, where it joins the Ganges. In its upper course it is unnavigable, but becomes navigable by boats of about 3½ tons below Káliáganj, increasing in depth and volume till, shortly before entering Maldah District, it is navigable by boats of 35 tons burthen. Many of the tributaries of the Mahánandá are also navigable. The principal trading villages on the banks of the Mahánandá are — Káliáganj, Haldíbárí, Kharkharí, Krishnaganj, Dulálganj, and Barsoi.

Wild Animals.—Tigers are found in all parts of the District, but particularly along the banks and among the sandy islands of the Kusí, where they find shelter in the high grass jungle with which the country is covered. Another tract much frequented by tigers is the scrub jungle along the northern boundary of the District. A few also come from near Gaur, in Maldah District, and from the *sál* forests in Dinájpur. Leopards are common along the Dinájpur frontier, and hyænas in the north of the District. Deer are few, but antelope are plentiful on the open plains in the north. Wild hog and jackals are common. Game birds include pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, partridge, quail, plover, snipe, varieties of wild geese, duck, teal, and widgeon.

History.—Purniah fell into the hands of the Muhammadan conquerors in the 13th century, previous to which time the southern portion of the District is said to have constituted a portion of the dominions of Lakshman Sen, the last independent Hindu king of Bengal. It was not, however, apparently until the 17th century that Purniah became the valuable prize which it was afterwards considered. During the intermediate centuries it was regarded as an outlying military Province of the Mughal Empire; and its revenues were almost consumed in protecting its own lands against the incursions of the northern and eastern tribes. During the war between Sher Sháh, the Afghán ruler of Bengal, and Humáyún, the Mughal Emperor of Delhi, Purniah supplied the latter with some rough levies; but so little was known of this outlying tract from the 13th to the middle of the 17th

century, that not even the names of its *faujdárs* or military governors appear to have been recorded.

About the latter quarter of the 17th century, Ostwál Khán was appointed *faujdár*, with the title of Nawáb, and united with the command of the frontier army the fiscal duties of *ámil* or superintendent of the revenues. He was succeeded by Abdullá Khán, who was vested with similar powers. Upon the death of Bábhaniyár Khán in 1722, Sáif Khán, the greatest of the governors of Purniah, was appointed to what had now become an office of great emolument and dignity. Under his administration, and afterwards under that of Sayyid Ahmad, son-in-law of Alí Vardi Khán, Nawáb of Bengal, who died in 1756, the power of the Purniah governorship was consolidated. A considerable army was equipped, and the frontier was extended in many directions.

Sayyid Ahmad was succeeded by Shaukat Jang, whose character is represented to have been as bad as that of his notorious cousin Siráj-ud-daulá, the Nawáb of Bengal. Both young men, by their perverse conduct, gave offence to the old servants and officers of their fathers, and alienated the affections of the people. The chief among the disgraced adherents of the Nawáb, Mír Jafar Khán, a name subsequently well known in British history, betook himself to the court of the Purniah governor, and describing the weakness of his own master, urged Shaukat Jang to advance an army towards Murshidábád. This advice coincided with the natural impules of Shaukat Jang. War was declared, and Siráj-ud-daulá, who had just returned from Calcutta after the tragedy of the Black Hole, proceeded into Purniah to anticipate the attack. A sanguinary battle was fought near Nawábganj, and lost by Shaukat Jang, mainly in consequence of his own gross indolence and incapacity. He was himself killed in the battle, after a reign of only nine months, and the victorious army entered Purniah two days later. Temporary governors were then appointed; but the country remained in a state of anarchy until the last governor was superseded, in 1770, by an English official, with the title of Superintendent.

The present jurisdiction of the District has been established gradually, after large portions have been parcelled away to create the District of Maldah, and, more recently, to consolidate Bhágalpur upon the western frontier. Purniah District is now divided into three Sub-divisions, viz. the head-quarters or southern Sub-division, Arariyá in the north-west, and Krishnaganj in the north-east.

Population. — In the beginning of this century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton estimated that the population of the District was 2,904,380 but this seems to be an excessive estimate, even after making allowance for the greater extent of the Purniah jurisdiction at that time There are no grounds for supposing that the population has decreased According to the Census of 1872, which was very carefully effected, th

total population of Purniah District as at present constituted was 1,714,795, giving an average of 346 persons per square mile. At the last enumeration in 1881, a total of 1,848,687 was disclosed, showing an increase in the nine years of 133,692, or 8·72 per cent.

The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4956 square miles; number of towns, 7, and of villages, 5680; number of houses, 311,131, of which 304,712 were occupied, and 6419 unoccupied. Total population, 1,848,687, namely, males 937,080, and females 911,607; proportion of males, 50·7 per cent. Average number of persons per town or village, 325; average inmates per house, 6·07; average density of population, 373 persons per square mile.

The population is most dense in the rich alluvial plain to the east of the District, watered by the Mahánandá and its affluents, where the proportion is 471 to the square mile. The east and central police circles also show a denser population than the average of the District. The number diminishes to the south and west along the banks of the Ganges and Kusí, in consequence of the devastating overflow of these rivers. Along the Kusí the population grows more and more sparse from north to south, until in the police circle of Damdahá it falls to only 212 to the square mile.

Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years, males 377,373, and females 349,008; total children, 726,381, or 39·3 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 559,707, and females 562,599; total adults, 1,122,306, or 60·7 per cent.

The course of the Mahánandá river marks a distinct ethnical division of the people. To the west there is a large Aryan element, whose characteristics of language and physique predominate over the more numerous non-Aryan people among whom they are diffused. Eastwards, the mass of the people are aborigines, being an outlying portion of the Koch or Kirántí race. Whole villages of Goálás, or herdsmen, are found on the sandy plains formed by the Kusí, in the west of the District.

Religion.—The bulk of the population are Hindus, who were returned in the Census Report of 1881 as numbering 1,076,539, or 58·2 per cent. of the District population. Muhammadans numbered 771,130, or 41·7 per cent.; Christians, 327; Jews, 12; and non-Hindu Kols, 679.

Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 34,822; Rájputs, 48,465; Bábhans, 11,842; Káyasths, 12,761; and Baniyás, 31,290. The principal lower or Súdra castes include the following:—Goálá or herdsmen, the most numerous caste in the District, 131,629; Kaibartta, 44,221; Dhanuk, 35,584; Telí, 38,136; Musahar, 31,209; Dosádh, 30,949; Harí, 30,883; Koerí, 26,238; Chamár, 21,968;

Keut or Kewat, 19,798; Kumbhár, 18,732; Nápit, 18,222; Tior, 16,028; Tántí, 15,860; Mallah, 15,593; Kahár, 15,190; Kurmí, 14,648; Barhai, 14,522; Sunrí, 14,146; Tatwá, 13,621; Dhobí, 13,620; Lohár, 11,517; Madak, 9905; Kalwár, 9822; Sonár, 7997; Bind, 7748; Málí, 7172; Dom, 6805; Kándu, 5823; Nuniyá, 5754; Baruí, 4795; and Garerí, 3648. Caste-rejecting Hindus number 7367, of whom 3412 are returned as Vaishnavs. The Hindu aboriginal population is returned at 86,366, of whom 71,833 are Kochs, and 4000 Kharwars, with a sprinkling of Gonds, Kols, Bhuinyás, and others. The Muhammadan population is returned as under, according to sect —Sunnís, 735,889; Shiás, 4422; and unspecified, 30,819. The Christian community consists of 94 Episcopalians and Church of England, 31 Roman Catholics, 12 Baptists, 98 Protestants without distinction of sect, while the remainder are unspecified.

Town and Rural Population, etc.—The population of the District is almost entirely rural, and only seven towns have a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely, PURNIAH, population (1881) 15,016; BANSGAON, 6158; SITALPUR KHAS, 6002; KRISHNAGANJ, 6000; RANIGANJ, 5978; BHATGAON, 5723; and KASBA, 5124. These seven towns contain a total population of 50,001, or only 2·7 per cent. of the District population. Three towns only are municipalities, namely, Purniah, Krishnaganj, and Ránígani. Total municipal income (1883–84), £2205, of which £1814 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head. Of the total of 5687 towns and villages, 2558 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 2138 from two to five hundred; 754 from five hundred to a thousand; 212 from one to two thousand; 16 from two to three thousand; 2 from three to five thousand; and 7 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into six main divisions, as follows:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military, 6064; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 63,945; (3) commercial, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 42,743; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 325,663; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 46,279; (6) unspecified and unproductive, including general labourers, 452,386.

Agriculture.—Rice is the most important crop in Purniah. Although the area under rice is less than in Bengal proper, it is considerably larger than in the more western parts of Behar. Next to rice, tobacco and jute are the most important products of the District. The best tobacco is grown along the high strips of country extending from the town of Purniah in a north and somewhat westerly direction. The soil farther to the east, which is richer and moister, is not so well adapted for the cultivation of this crop. Jute is grown over the north of the

District, and indigo is raised on a considerable area to the south of Purniah town. Irrigation is not usually resorted to in any part of Purniah. The total cultivated area of the District has been estimated at 2,315,910 acres; the uncultivated area capable of cultivation at 285,440 acres, and the uncultivable waste at 571,029 acres. Seventy-five acres would be considered a very large holding, and 8 acres or under, a very small one. Twenty acres may be put down as a fair-sized comfortable holding. Eight acres is as much as a single pair of ordinary bullocks can keep in cultivation.

There are but few intermediate permanent rights between the landlord and the cultivator. Estates are generally let on short leases to farmers, who try to make as much as they can during their term. The number of permanent under-tenures of all kinds is, according to the road cess returns, only 1031, as against 2378 farming leases. Indebtedness among the cultivators is common. A late Collector estimated that tenants with occupancy rights do not form more than a quarter of the peasantry of the District, while those holding at rents protected from enhancement under Act VIII. of 1869 scarcely amount to one-sixteenth. The great mass of the cultivators are mere tenants-at-will. The rates of rent are generally low as compared with other Districts, ranging from a nominal rate of 6d. to 8s. per acre. Besides the system of rents founded on the nature and richness of the soil, there is another, current in the south-west of the District, called *hál-hasli*, under which rent is assessed according to the crops grown on the land.

A letter from the Collector to the Board of Revenue in 1788, estimates the average earnings of the labouring classes at 1 rupee, or 2s., a month. In 1842, wages were from 3s. to 4s. a month. At the present day, agricultural labourers are paid 7s., but the labourers who come to the District for the season from Chutiá Nágpur usually demand 8s. a month. Skilled labour, when employed by natives, is generally paid in kind. Blacksmiths can earn about 24s. a month; carpenters, from 12s. to 14s.; bricklayers, from 8s. to 10s. The prices of food have increased in the same proportion as the wages of labour. In 1794, the price of rice per cwt. was about 1s. 4d.; in 1878, it was about 4s. 10d. In 1883–84, the average price of common rice and of wheat was returned at 6s. 9d. per cwt. at the head-quarters town.

Natural Calamities.—Purniah District is very liable to floods, which cause much damage; but on such occasions it is usual for the high lands to yield abundantly, thus tending to compensate for the crops destroyed by the inundation. Drought, when it occurs, is a more serious calamity than flood. The great famine of 1770, which was attended with a terrible mortality in Purniah, was occasioned by the failure of nearly all the crops of the year, but particularly of the

late rice, in consequence of long-continued drought. In a report to the Directors of the East India Company, it was stated that 'the famine which has ensued, the mortality, the beggary, exceed all description. Above one-third of the inhabitants have perished in the once plentiful Province of Purniah.' In 1788, the rainfall was again deficient, but no serious results followed, and there is no record of any other failure of the crops till 1866. Even on that occasion, the local pressure was caused, not so much by deficiency in the produce, as by the drain on the District for the troops, which had been constantly passing to and fro in connection with the war in Bhután during the two previous years. In 1874, the crops again partially failed, but the necessary precautions were taken, and famine was effectually averted from the District.

Manufactures, Commerce, etc.—Indigo is the most important manufacture in Purniah. In an average year, the out-turn of indigo is estimated at 5000 to 7000 *maunds* (about 225 tons) of dye; area of land under indigo, 60,000 to 70,000 acres. The annual expenditure by the various factories is returned at £100,000; but there are no figures showing how much capital is invested in buildings, machinery, and land. There are 34 factories in the District, with 31 subsidiary works; of which only 3 are owned and managed by natives. The cultivation is based more on the principle of freedom than in Lower Bengal or in the neighbouring Behar Districts. The cultivators sell their indigo at the vats, where it is measured, and a fair value given for the plant.

Bidri ware, a local manufacture, is made from a mixture of pewter and brass, inlaid with silver; it is chiefly used for hookah-stands, plates, jugs, etc. Blanket-weaving is carried on by the Garerí or shepherd caste, almost exclusively in the south and west of the District. Some members of this caste have no flocks, and live entirely by weaving; others have both looms and flocks, and others flocks but no looms. All, however, hold farms, as, owing to the frequency of disease, the produce of their flocks and looms is uncertain. Gunny is largely woven from jute in the Krishnaganj Sub-division by women of the lower castes, who bring the pieces for sale to the village markets, where they are purchased by petty traders and carried to the larger *bázárs* on the banks of the Mahánandá, and exported to Calcutta by boat. Paper manufacture is carried on in Krishnaganj town by a colony of Musalmáns, who intermarry only among themselves, and who subsist solely on the profits of their special trade.

The chief articles of trade are rice, oil-seeds, indigo, jute, tobacco, hides, and fish; the principal seats of commerce being Kásba, Ekamba, Dulálganj, Krishnaganj, Rániganj, Nawábganj, Purniah, and Sáifganj, the latter being the chief seat of the sheep-breeding trade. Agri-

cultural products, with dried fish and hides, form the chief staples of the export trade, in return for which piece-goods, spices, drugs, brass and iron ware are imported. A considerable trans-frontier trade, both export and import, is carried on with Nepál.

Means of Communication are not so good in Purniah generally as in neighbouring Districts of Bengal and Behar. The tract of country, however, lying north of the head-quarters station is fairly well opened out by roads, many of which were made during the relief operations of 1874; and as this whole system of roads converges on the great Dárjíling and Káragolá road, it is thereby connected with the river Ganges, and beyond the river, by steamer, with the East Indian Railway at Sáhibganj. Purniah District will, however, be shortly brought into communication directly with the railway system of India. A line is in course of construction from the Darbhangah branch of the Tirhút State Railway, running eastwards through Purniah for some distance along the Nepál frontier, afterwards turning to the south and running past Purniah town, till it touches the Ganges near Mánihárí opposite Sáifganj. A line is also to be constructed from Sáifganj station on the above line, running eastwards through Dinájpur to Kuch Behar.

Administration.—The revenue of the District of Purniah, according to the records in the Collector's office, amounted in 1792 to £126,049; in 1850–51 to £157,690; and in 1870–71 to £179,449. The net expenditure in 1792 was £27,204; in 1850–51, £24,258; and in 1870–71, £37,831. The increased revenue in the twenty years ending 1870–71 is noteworthy, as since 1850 large transfers have been made from Purniah to Maldah and to Bhágalpur, involving a loss in land revenue to Purniah of £20,000. This loss, however, was met by a threefold increase in excise receipts, a much larger sale of stamps, and the imposition of an income-tax. The additional expenditure was generally distributed through all departments of local administration.

In 1883–84, the six principal items of District revenue aggregated £177,930, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £116,259; excise, £26,303; stamps, £23,967; registration, £1463; road cess, £8124; and municipal taxes, £1814. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the salaries of District officials and police, amounted in 1883–84 to £21,438. In 1883–84 there were 1653 estates in the District, owned by 5776 registered proprietors or coparceners; the average amount of revenue paid by each estate being £70, 6s. 6d., and by each proprietor, £20, 2s. 6d. The gradual steps by which the land revenue of Purniah was assessed are interesting, and have been given at considerable length from the original records in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xv. p. 389 *et seq.*

Protection to person and property has steadily improved. In the

year 1800 there were 3 magisterial courts, 2 civil and 2 revenue courts; in 1883 there were 6 magisterial and 7 civil and revenue courts. For executive purposes, the District is divided into 3 Sub-divisions and 13 police circles. In 1883 there were 1 superior European officer, 82 subordinate officers, and 459 constables in the regular and municipal or town police, maintained at a total charge of £8565. The village watch consisted of 4398 rural policemen, maintained entirely by contributions from the people at a total estimated cost in money and lands of £15,237. The whole police force of the District amounted, therefore, to 4940 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every square mile of area, or 1 to every 374 of the population. The total police charges, actual and estimated, were £23,802, showing an incidence of about £4, 16s. per square mile of area, or a fraction over 3d. per head of population. The total number of persons convicted of an offence, great or small, in 1883, was 1579, or 1 to every 1171 of the population. The average number of prisoners in jail during 1883 was 132, of whom 5 were females.

Education of all kinds, and especially primary education, has been widely diffused in Purniah District during the past few years. This progress is due to the policy of Sir George Campbell, in recognising the existing village schools of the country, improving them by Government grants, and incorporating them into the State system of public instruction. The number of Government and aided schools increased from 1 in 1856–57 to 12 in 1870–71, and 347 in 1874–75. The total number of pupils increased from 66 in 1856–57 to 288 in 1870–71, and to 8744 in 1874–75. In the latter year there were also 183 private and unaided schools, subject to Government inspection. Full details are not available showing the exact educational figures for 1883–84, but the number of Government inspected primary schools in that year had increased to 995, with 12,223 pupils. The District or *zilá* school had 133 pupils in 1883–84. These figures are exclusive of all uninspected and unaided schools. The Census Report of 1881 returns 16,889 boys and 569 girls as under instruction in that year, besides 28,143 males and 1059 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

There are 3 municipalities in the District—Purniah town, with a municipal income in 1883–84 of £1756, of which £1380 was derived from taxation, or an incidence of taxation of 1s. 10d. per head; Krishnaganj, where the municipal income was £325, incidence of taxation 1s. 0⅝d. per head; and Ráníganj, municipal income £123, incidence of taxation 5d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Purniah District is of an intermediate character between that of Behar and Central Bengal. The rainfall averages 67 inches in the year, which is far above the rate

of Tirhút or North Bhágalpur, but not so heavy as in Dinájpur, Rangpur, or Bográ. Purniah is the most eastern District that distinctly feels the hot and dry west winds so prevalent in Behar and Upper India. The average monthly mean temperature for the year is 76·8° F., the thermometer during May rising to 105° or 107° F. in the shade. The most unhealthy season of the year is towards the close of October, when the rains cease, and the flooded lands begin to dry up, filling the air with malarial exhalations from decaying vegetation. At this season the population suffers greatly from fever. The District is in consequence generally considered unhealthy by the people of Bengal. Medical relief is afforded by charitable dispensaries at Purniah town, Krishnaganj, and Basantpur. [For further information regarding Purniah, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xv. pp. 219–444 (Trübner & Co., London, 1877). Also Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's MS. *Statistical Account of Purniah*, compiled about 1811; the *Bengal Census Reports* for 1872 and 1881; and the several Bengal Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Purniah.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Purniah District, Bengal. Area (1881), 1644 square miles; towns and villages, 1430; houses, 85,871. Population (1881) 511,945, namely, males 261,055, and females 250,890. Hindus number 363,121, or 70·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 150,548, or 29·4 per cent.; Christians, 264; and Jews, 12. Average density of population, 311 persons per square mile; average number of villages, ·87 per square mile; persons per village, 358; houses per square mile, 54; inmates per house, 5·9. This Sub-division comprises the 4 police circles of Purniah, Amúr-Kásba, Damdahá, and Gondwára. In 1883 it contained 5 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts, with a regular police force of 334 men, and a village watch or rural police of 1843 *chaukídárs*.

Purniah.—Chief town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Saurá river, in lat. 25° 46′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 30′ 44″ E. Population (1872) 16,057; (1881) 15,016, namely, males 8463, and females 6553. Hindus number 9175; Muhammadans, 5662; and 'others,' 179. Municipal income (1883–84), £1756, of which £1380 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 10d. per head.

The old civil station of Rámbágh, formerly a western suburb, now lies within the centre of the town. The population has decreased considerably in the last half-century, owing to the unhealthiness of the climate, consequent on the silting up of the river Kálí Kusí, when it formed the bed of the Great Kusí. As that river worked westward, it gave place to a chain of marshes connected by low strips of land, which were flooded in the rains, and formed at that season of the year a con-

tinuous water communication. At the time of the English occupation (about 1771), this change seems to have been not yet complete; the main body of water had been diverted, but enough still remained in the Kálí Kusí to keep the swamps deep, and very little of the bed was left dry for any considerable part of the year. About 1820 the station became one of the most unhealthy in Bengal; and the old graveyard shows how great must have been the mortality among the European residents during the second quarter of this century. About 1835 the Government offices were removed to higher ground, 2 miles west of the military lines of Purniah. After this change there was an appreciable improvement in the health of the officials and other residents; but the town still retained its unpopularity. The native quarter is even now subject to outbreaks of fever, passing into severe epidemics; and it is believed that in unhealthy years no less than 90 per cent. of the native population suffer from this disease. Purniah has a considerable trade in jute.

Purúliá.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 3344 square miles; towns and villages, 4366; houses, 147,305. Population (1881) 861,644, namely, males 427,336, and females 434,308. Hindus number 794,359, or 92·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 30,769, or 3·6 per cent.; Santáls, 30,103, or 3·5 per cent.; other non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 5906, or ·68 per cent.; Christians, 482; Buddhists, 23; and Jews, 2. Average density of population, 257·7 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·31; persons per village, 198; houses per square mile, 44·7; inmates per house, 5·9. This Sub-division contains the 11 police circles of Purúliá, Jaipur, Jhalidá, Bághmundi, Ichhágarh, Barabhúm, Mánbázár, Raghunáthpur, Gaurandí, Pára, and Chás.

Purúliá.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 19′ 38″ N., long. 86° 24′ 35″ E. Population (1872) 5695; (1881) 9805, namely, Hindus, 7795; Muhammadans, 1248; and 'others,' 262. Municipal income (1876–77), £457; (1883–84), £919, of which £569 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head of the population (8192) within municipal limits. The town contains a Deputy Commissioner's office, court-house, jail, police station, dispensary, church, etc.; the *bázár* supplies the District generally with cotton, salt, and other imported goods.

Purushottapur (*Purushottamapuram*, 'City of Purushottama,' or *Jagannáth*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 31′ 15″ N., long. 84° 57′ E., on the banks of the Rashikuliya river. The town is being gradually driven back from its present site by the encroachment of the river. During the last twenty years four streets have been obliterated. Population (1881) 3962. Chiefly notable

for the Pillar of Tougodo (4 miles to the north), bearing an Edict of Asoka (dating probably about 250 B.C.), similar to those at Dhauli in Cuttack, and in the fort at Allahábád. Round the pillar runs a rampart, or encirling mound, marking the site of a very ancient fort and city, which covers a total area of about 144 acres. The inscription is addressed to the dwellers on the Kephalinga hills. The letters are fast being worn away, but photographs have been taken which secure the sense of the writing. The mound is locally known as the 'Lac Fort;' its name being derived from the tradition that it was made of lac (Coccus Lacca), and impregnable, as no enemy could scale the smooth and slippery walls. Station of a Sub-magistrate, post-office, etc.

Purwá.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Unao District, Oudh; situated between 26° 8′ and 26° 40′ N. lat., and between 80° 37′ and 81° 5′ 30″ E. long., and comprising the ten *parganás* of Purwá, Mauránwán, Asoha, Bhagwantnagar, Daundia Khera, Panhán, Behar, Pátan, Magráyar, and Ghátampur. Bounded on the north by Rasulábád and Lucknow *tahsíls*, on the east by Mohanlálganj and Mahárájganj, on the south by Lálganj *tahsíl* and Fatehpur District, and on the west by Unao *tahsíl*. Area, 547 square miles, of which 270 are cultivated. Population (1881) 278,527, namely, 263,793 Hindus and 14,734 Musalmáns; average density of population, 509 persons per square mile; number of villages and townships (*mauzás*), 538. In 1883, Purwá *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 magisterial courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 66 men; village police (*chaukídárs*), 825.

Purwá.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Govinda Parsandan; on the east by Mauránwán; on the south by Panhán, Pátan, and Magráyar; and on the west by Harha. Area, 111 square miles, of which 54 are cultivated. The soil is chiefly loam and clay; the principal crops are wheat, barley, and sugar-cane. The Lon river runs through the *parganá*, but is dry in the hot weather. Population (1881) 60,335, namely, 55,746 Hindus and 4589 Musalmáns. Government land revenue, £7897, or an average of 2s. 2½d. per acre. The area under the different tenures is as follows:—*Tálukdári*, 15,980 acres; *zamíndári*, 39,640 acres; *pattidári*, 15,411 acres.

Purwá.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Purwá *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 20 miles south-east of Unao town. Lat. 26° 27′ 20″ N., long. 80° 48′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 9719, namely, 7176 Hindus and 2543 Muhammadans. Purwá was formerly the head-quarters of the District; but soon after annexation the seat of administration was moved to Unao. Four lines of unmetalled road lead from Purwá—one between Unao and Rái Bareli, a second from Purwá to Cawnpur, a third from Purwá to Lucknow, and a fourth

from Purwá to Behar, Baksár, and Rái Bareli. The town is noted for its shoes and leather-work. Two markets are held weekly; and there are three annual fairs, the sales at which amount to about £3100. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts, Purwá contains a police station, and a school attended by upwards of 100 boys.

Pús.—River of Berar; rises at the village of Káta, just north of Básim town, in lat. 20° 9′ N., long. 77° 12′ E.; and, after a course of 64 miles, first south-east and then north-east, empties itself into the Pengangá at Sangam (lat. 19° 51′ N., long. 76° 47′ E.). The valleys drained by the river, and by the Káta Purna, which rises close to it, are generally narrow and confined. The soil is good, and fairly cultivated.

Púsá.—Government estate in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Area, 4528 acres. The records of the old Tirhút Collectorate show that the village was acquired by Government in 1796, on *mukarrárí* lease from the Máliks or head-men of Lodípur Púsá, Chandmarí, and Despur, who bound themselves and their heirs to give up all interest in the lands, except the right to the first year's rental. In 1798, other waste lands appertaining to Bakhtiárpur were assigned to Government without any additional rent.

The estate was long used as a stud depôt, but all stud operations were closed in 1872; and in 1875 a model farm was established, the soil being of the first quality, the situation good, and water-carriage and large markets within easy reach. The most important experiment is that of investigating whether the *garpá* rice of Dacca can be made to grow in high lands in Tirhút as it does in Bengal. Another project is to teach the Tirhút *ráyats*, who take great interest in these experiments, to grow and prepare safflower-dye according to the Bengal method. The grounds at Púsá have been very well laid out. There is a great deal of valuable timber scattered over the estate. The total receipts from the model farm in 1873–74 amounted to £527. Still more recently, the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco have been undertaken at Púsá, in connection with the State model farm at Gházípur in the North-Western Provinces. A professional curer of the leaf has been obtained from America. In 1877–78, a crop of 150,000 lbs. of tobacco was raised from 200 acres. Of this, 15,000 lbs. was sent to England, and there sold at prices ranging from 2½d. to 5½d. per lb. The population of Púsá village in 1881 was 376.

Púsad.—*Táluk* of Básim District, Berar. Area, 1273 square miles; containing two towns and 309 villages. Population (1867) 91,268; (1881) 125,051, namely, 64,080 males and 60,971 females, or 98·23 persons per square mile. Area occupied by cultivators, 351,427 acres. Hindus number 116.514; Muhammadans, 7668; Jains, 847; Christians, 12; and Sikhs, 10. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2

criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 104 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 139. Total revenue, £21,751, of which £18,263 was derived from land.

Púsad.—Chief town of Púsad *táluk*, in Básim District, Berar; situated in lat. 19° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 36′ 30″ E., about 25 miles south-east of Básim town, on the Pús river, from which it takes its name. Population (1881) 5047, of whom 4190 are Hindus, 679 Musalmáns, and 178 Jains. Though now decayed, it is still the head-quarters of a *tahsíldár*, and has been the residence of the revenue officials for more than 150 years. There are two old Hindu temples, and the ruins of some others; also a fine tank for irrigation, which has now silted up owing to a defect in the original construction. Púsad has a few well-to-do shopkeepers and dealers in country produce, and its weekly market is well attended. Vernacular school, police station, post-office, and dispensary.

Pusesávli.—Town in Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 26′ N., and long. 74° 24′ E., 27 miles south-east of Sátára town. Population (1881) 2569; municipal revenue, £95. Dispensary and post-office; weekly market; school with 84 pupils in 1883–84.

Pushkar.—Town, lake, and place of pilgrimage in Ajmere-Merwára, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 74° 36′ E. Height, 2389 feet. Pushkar is the only town in India which contains a temple dedicated to Bráhma, who here performed the sacrifice known as *yajna*, whereby the lake of Pushkar became so holy, that the greatest sinner by bathing in it earns the delights of Paradise. The town contains five principal temples, dedicated respectively to Bráhma, Sávitri, Badri Náráyana, Varáha, and Siva Atmateswara, all of modern construction, as the earlier buildings suffered severely under Aurangzeb. Bathing *gháts* line the lake, and most of the princely families of Rájputána have houses round the margin. No living thing may be put to death within the limits of the town. Great fair in October and November, attended by about 100,000 pilgrims, who bathe in the sacred lake. Large trade at that time in horses, camels, bullocks, and miscellaneous merchandise. Permanent population about 3750, chiefly Bráhmans.

Pushpa-giri (or *Súbrahmanya hill*).—Prominent bullock-hump-shaped peak of the Súbrahmanya range of mountains, a spur of the Western Gháts, at the north-western boundary of Coorg, in South Kánara District of Madras, and on the border of Hassan District of Mysore. Lat. 12° 40′ N., long. 75° 44′ E.; 5626 feet above the sea. The ascent is difficult, but can be managed on foot in about three hours. On the lower slopes there is a dense jungle, haunted by wild elephants; on the summit are many ancient stone cairns. The view is very extensive. An annual fair is held here in December, which attracts a great number of people.

Putera.—Estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces.—*See* PITIHRA.

Puthanapuram. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 400 square miles, containing 80 *karas* or villages. Population (1875) 36,816; (1881) 37,064, namely, 18,594 males and 18,470 females, occupying 8461 houses. Density of population, 92·7 persons per square mile. Hindus number 30,709; Muhammadans, 2565; and Christians, 3790.

Putúr.—Town in Uppinangádi *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 45′ 45″ N., long. 75° 14′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 2481, inhabiting 452 houses. Hindus number 1765; Muhammadans, 356; Christians, 338; and 'others,' 22. Putúr was formerly an outpost on the Coorg frontier, and troops were stationed here till 1859. The head-quarters of the Uppinangádi *táluk*, with a post-office. It was the scene of a rebellious outbreak in 1837.

Putúr. — Town in Tirumangalam *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 57′ 30″ N., long. 77° 52′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 7625, inhabiting 1230 houses. Hindus number 7490; Muhammadans, 125; Christians, 9; and 'others,' 1.

Pú-zun-daung. — River in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; rises in the Pegu Yoma range, in about lat. 17° 8′ N., and, after a southerly course of 53 miles, falls into the HLAING just below Rangoon town. It is about 440 yards wide at its mouth; but the river is now silting up, owing to the vast quantities of rice-husk discharged from the mills on its banks. The upper part of the Pú-zun-daung valley produces valuable timber, and the lower part large crops of rice.

Pya-ma-law.—One of the mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), the great river of Burma. At the town of Shwe-laung, situated in lat. 16° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 23′ 30″ E., it leaves the Pan-ta-naw river, and runs for about 6 miles to the north-north-east. Then it turns west and south-south-west, and, after a course of 90 miles, falls into the sea in about lat. 15° 50′ N., and long. 94° 48′ E., having, 15 miles above, given off a large branch eastward called the Pyin-tha-lu. The Pya-ma-law is connected with the Irawadi by numerous inter-communicating creeks, and is navigable throughout its whole course by river steamers; its mouth is 4 miles wide.

Pya-pun (*Pya-poon*). — Township in Thún-gwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Bounded east by Hanthawadi District, south by the Bay of Bengal, and west by Bassein. A level tract, intersected in its lower portions by numerous inter-communicating tidal creeks; subject to inundation. Chief product, rice. The township comprises 8 revenue circles. Population (1877) 44,207; gross revenue, £26,322. Population (1881) 78,299; gross revenue, £44,161.

Pya-pun (*Pya-poon*).—Chief village of Pya-pun township, in Thún-gwa District, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 16° 16′ N., and long. 95° 40′ E. Population (1881) 2009, engaged chiefly in sea-fishing.

Pya-pun (*Pya-poon*).—Tidal creek in Thún-gwa District, Lower Burma, forming one of the mouths of the Irawadi. It branches off southwards from the To or China Bakir near Kun-ta, and has a depth of 12 feet at low-water almost throughout its whole length. Its banks are somewhat steep and muddy, and are fringed with forest.

Pyaw-bhway.—Village in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 16° 40′ N., and long. 96° 13′ E., on both banks of the tidal creek Ka-ma-aung, which is spanned by several good bridges. Contains numerous pagodas and small *zayats* or rest-houses. Population (1877) 3766; and (1881) 2043.

Pykára (*Paikára*).—River in the Nílgiri District, Madras.—*See* NILGIRI.

Pyouk-seit (*Hpyouk-tshiep*).—The southern portion of Shwe-daung town, Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It is 7 miles below Prome, on the left bank of the Irawadi.

Pyu (*Hypú*).—River in Taung-gnú District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* HYPU.

Pyun-wa (*Pyoon-wa*).—Tidal creek at the entrance to the Bassein river, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It leaves the Thek-ge-thaing mouth at Auk-kyun-ywa, where its breadth is 300 yards, and rejoins it 13 miles higher up at Pyun-wa-ywa, where the stream is only 50 yards wide. Total length, 16 miles; minimum depth, 25 feet.

Q.

Quetta.—The most northerly District of Balúchistán proper, forming part of the territories of the Khán of Khelát. It is bounded on the north, north-west, and west by the Pishín and Sharod Districts; on the east by the Zarghun range; and on the south by the desert tract known as the Dasht-i-bedaulat, and by the Khelát District of Mastung.

Physical Aspects.—Quetta District is a valley about 20 miles long by 5 broad, almost entirely surrounded by mountains. It is fertile, populous, well-watered, and contains many villages and orchards. Its principal inhabitants are Afgháns named Kasis. The main road *viâ* the Bolan Pass to Pishín and Kandahár traverses the length of the valley.

History.—The District was originally a part of the Duráni Empire formed by Ahmad Sháh, but was ceded by him, together with Mastung and Sharod, to Nasir Khán I. of Khelát, surnamed the Great. This grant was in recognition of the services rendered by Nasir Khán, and his contingent of Balúchís and Brahuís, in the campaign against the Persians

in 1768–69. The decisive battle of this campaign was fought in the neighbourhood of Mashad, and the Afgháns would have been defeated but for Nasir Khán and his Brahuís, who retrieved the fortunes of the day. The story goes that when Ahmad Sháh was distributing rewards to his chiefs, on the return of the victorious army to Kandahár, he handed to Nasir Khán a grant conferring on him the sovereignty of the Districts above mentioned, saying at the same time, 'This is your *shál*.' The District, before known as Rasulábád, is said to have acquired its modern and local name of Shál from this circumstance.

Administration and Revenue.—Quetta District has been administered by British officers since 1877. At first its revenues were accounted for to the Khán of Khelát, but in 1882 it was arranged that the District should be leased by the Khán to the British Government for a fixed annual quit-rent of £2500. Since 1883 the administration has formed part of the charge of the Political Agent for Quetta and Pishín, who is under the control of the Governor-General's Agent in Balúchistán. Subordinate to the Political Agent are the usual establishments of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner, a *tahsíldár*, and also a police force supplemented by tribal levies.

The revenue of the District is derived chiefly from land. The cultivators may be divided into two principal classes, viz. (1) those whose assessment is fixed, either in cash or in kind, and (2) those who pay to Government shares of the produce of their lands which vary according to the nature of the water-supply. These shares are generally one-third of the produce in case of irrigation from streams, and one-sixth of the produce in case of irrigation from the artificial channels called *karezs*. The land revenue amounts to about £2500 a year.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is pleasant, but has lately not proved healthy for Europeans.

Quetta (or *Shálkot*, as it is locally called).—Chief town of Quetta District, Balúchistán. The town has developed largely under British administration. It was occupied by troops in 1876, and formed the base of operations in Southern Afghánistán during the war of 1879–80. It is now the head-quarters of a strong brigade, and the defences of the old fort have been improved. Adjacent to the military cantonment is a flourishing civil *bázár* and native town, which are administered on municipal principles. The head-quarters of the Agent to the Governor-General, the chief civil authority in Balúchistán, are at Quetta. On the completion of the Bolan and the Sind-Pishín Railways, Quetta will be connected with the railway system of India, and will doubtless increase in importance.

Quilandi (properly *Kovilkandi*; corruptly *Coilandi, Koyilándi*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 26′ 25″ N., long. 75° 44′ 11″ E. Population (1881), with surrounding township,

10,259, namely, 4958 males and 5301 females, occupying 1752 houses. Hindus numbered 6625; Muhammadans, 3570; and Christians, 64. A Máppillá seaport between Calicut and Mahe, with a considerable trade. Sub-magistrate's and District *munsif's* courts, customs-house, bungalow, etc. The roadstead, which is protected by a mud bank, is more secure than most anchorages on the coast; and it was close to this place, in 1498, that Vasco da Gama's fleet first cast anchor. One of the E. I. Company's ships was lost here in 1793, while attempting to ride out the south-west monsoon under shelter of the mud bank. Close to the seaport on the north, is one of the nine original Muhammadan mosques established on the Malabar coast by Málik Ibn Dinar (see article MALABAR). The mosque, recently renewed, is at Kollam, called Northern or Pantalayini Kollam, sometimes confounded with the southern Kollam (Quilon).

Quilon.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 154 square miles. Population (1875) 106,091, and (1881) 108,469, namely, 53,027 males and 55,442 females, dwelling in 22,208 houses, scattered over 160 *karas* or parishes. Hindus number 82,114; Muhammadans, 12,478; and Christians, 13,877. Of the Christians, 160 are Protestants, 9291 are Roman Catholics, and 4426 are Syrians.

Quilon (*Kollam*, *Coilam*, *Elangkōn Emporium*, Ptol.).—Town and port in Quilon District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 53′ 28″ N., long. 76° 36′ 59″ E. Population (1875) 14,366, inhabiting 2877 houses; and (1881) 13,588, inhabiting 2719 houses. The fourth largest town, and the military head-quarters, of the State.

One of the oldest towns on the coast, from whose re-foundation, in 1019 A.D., Travancore reckons its era. It contains the courts of the Divisional *Peshkár*, District judge, and subordinate courts, post-office, etc. The ancient history of Quilon goes back to the records of the primitive Syrian Church in India. It was for long one of the greatest ports of Malabar, and is mentioned as Coilon in a letter of the Nestorian Patriarch, Jesujabus of Adiabene; died 660 A.D. It appears in Arabic as early as 851 A.D., under the name *Kaulam-Mall*, when it was already frequented by ships from China; and during the 13th and 14th centuries it continued to be the great port of trade in Malabar with China and Arabia. It is the *Coilum* of Marco Polo; and the *Columbum* of several ecclesiastical writers of that age, one of whom, Friar Jordanus, was consecrated Bishop of Columbum, *circ.* 1330. It was an emporium for pepper, brazil-wood, and ginger, the best kind of which was known till late in the middle ages as Columbine ginger. Kaulam was an important place down to the beginning of the 16th century when Varthema speaks of it as a fine port, and Barbosa as 'a very great city, with many great merchants, Moors, and Gentoos, whose ships trade to all the Eastern ports, as far as Bengal, Pegu, and the Archi-

pelago.' Throughout the Middle Ages it appears to have been one of the chief seats of the 'Saint Thomas Christians,' and it formed, with Káyal (Koilpatam), one of the seven churches ascribed by Indo-Syrian tradition to Saint Thomas himself.—(Col. Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. ii. p. 365, ed. 1874.)

In 1503, the Portuguese established a factory and fort, captured by the Dutch 150 years later. Besides these changes, the town was at different times subject to Cochin, Cully Quilon, and Travancore. In 1741, Travancore unsuccessfully besieged it, but in 1745 the Quilon Rájá submitted. From 1803 to 1830, a strong British garrison was stationed here. The subsidiary force is now reduced to one Native regiment, whose cantonments lie to the east of the town. It is connected, by a road over the Arian-kavu Pass, with Tinnevelli and Palamcottah.—*See* KAVENKOLAM.

R.

Rabkavi.—Town in the Native State of Sángli, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 28′ 25″ N., long. 75° 9′ 16″ E. Population (1881) 5028, namely, Hindus, 4557; Muhammadans, 431; and Jains, 40. The population consists almost entirely of bankers, traders, and artisans. Local affairs are managed by a municipal body, known as the *Daiva.* There are four schools, one being for girls. An important trade centre. Silk is dyed and made up into various articles of clothing. Cotton is also dyed to some extent, with the permanent dye known as *suranji.*

Rábkob.—Chief village of Udaipur State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 28′ 18″ N., and long. 83° 15′ 25″ E., near the centre of the State, in a picturesque bend of the Mánd river, which at this point has carved its way through a vast mass of sandstone rock, and flows in a narrow pass with perpendicular cliffs on either side. The Rájá of Udaipur maintains a police station and jail, and possesses a large granary, in this village; and a periodical market is held here.

Rábkob is noted for its gold mines, which have shafts sunk from 20 to 60 feet in depth. These are very close together, as the miners are afraid to run galleries underground. The gold is separated from the soil by washing in wooden troughs. Another plan is to cut small watercourses before the rainy season, so as to catch the deposit of soil carried down by the water; this soil is cleared out several times, and is usually found to contain a certain proportion of gold. Some years ago, a lease of the village, with permission to work the mines for seven years, was obtained from Government, but the scheme had to be abandoned in consequence of the extreme unhealthiness of the climate.

Rabnábád.—An arm of the Bay of Bengal, east of the Haringhátá

river, and on the western side of the entrance to the Meghná river, in the Sundarbans, with three large islands of the same name at its mouth. The westernmost channel is narrow, but is thought to have 3 or 3½ fathoms of water; the eastern is supposed to be of nearly the same depth, but shoal water extends for a long way to seaward.

Rabnábád.—Three islands at the mouth of the Rabnábád channel in the Sundarbans, Bengal. Their southern extremity is situated in about lat. 21° 50′ N., 18 or 20 miles to the eastward of the Haringhátá, and on the western side of the entrance to the Meghná river. On parts of the island, where the forest once ran unbroken down to the water's edge, a belt of trees has been carefully preserved to protect the land from the violence of cyclones and storm-waves.

Rabupura.—Town in Khúrja *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated 3 miles east of the Jumna, and 19 miles south-west of Bulandshahr town. The place was founded by a Mewáti named Rabu, about 800 years ago. The Mewátis were ousted by the Jaiswár Rájputs in the days of Prithwi Ráj, in the latter part of the 12th century. From the time of the Emperor Sháh Alam, down to 1857, Rabupura was the centre of an estate comprising 24 villages, which was confiscated after the Mutiny for the rebellion of the proprietors. Population (1881) 3830. Weekly cattle market; village school. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Radaur.—Town and municipality in Pippli *tahsíl*, Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 1′ N., and long. 77° 10′ E., on the road from Tháneswar, 40 miles south-east of Ambála town. Population (1881) 4081, namely, Hindus, 2488; Muhammadans, 1520; and Sikhs, 73. Number of houses, 674. Municipal income (1883-84), £150, or at the rate of 8½d. per head. Head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*).

Rádhanpur.—Native State within the group under the supervision of the Political Superintendent of Pálanpur, in the Bombay Presidency; lying between 23° 26′ and 23° 58′ N. lat., and between 71° 28′ and 72° 3′ E. long. Including Munjpur and Sami, it is bounded north by the petty States of Morwára and Terwára; east by Baroda; south by Ahmadábád District and Jhinjhiwára under Káthiáwár; and west by the petty State of Wáráhi under Pálanpur.

The area of Rádhanpur is 1150 square miles. Population (1872) 91,579; (1881) 98,129, namely, 50,903 males and 47,226 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 156 villages, containing 23,048 houses. Hindus numbered 80,588; Muhammadans, 11,757; and 'others,' 5784.

The country is flat and open. Its rivers, three in number, rise near Mount Abu and the spurs of the Aravalli range, and fall into the Little or

Káthiáwár *rann*. As they generally dry up during the hot weather, the inhabitants are dependent on wells for their supply. Water is found at a depth of from 10 to 30 feet, but is sweet only near the surface, owing to the proximity of the *rann*.

The soil is of three kinds—sandy, black, and saline. The chief products are cotton, wheat, and the common varieties of grain. The prices of grain in the State per rupee (2s.) were as follows in 1883:—*bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 30 lbs.; wheat, 30 lbs.; *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), 47 lbs.; gram, 30 lbs.; rice, 18 lbs.

From April to July, and in October and November, the heat is excessive. If rain falls, August and September are pleasant months, and from December to March the climate is cool and bracing. The prevailing disease is fever. The only manufacture of importance is the preparation of a fine description of saltpetre.

Rádhanpur, now held by the celebrated Bábi family, who, since the reign of Humáyún, have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarát, is stated formerly to have been in the possession of the Wághelas, and to have been called Lunáwára, after Wághela Lunájí of the Sardhára branch of that tribe. Subsequently it was held as a fief under the Muhammadan kings of Gujarát by Fateh Khán Balúch, and is said to have been named Rádhanpur after Rádhan Khán of that family.

The first Bábi entered Hindustán in the company of Humáyún. Bahádur Khán Bábi was appointed *faujdár* of Thárad in the reign of Sháh Jahán; and his son Sher Khán Bábi, on account of his local knowledge, was sent to aid Prince Murád Baksh in the government of Gujarát. In 1693, his son Jafar Khán, by his ability and local influence, obtained the *faujdári* of Rádhanpur, Sami, Munjpur, and Terwára, with the title of Safdar Khán. In 1704 he was made Governor of Bijápur, and in 1706 of Pátan. His son, Khán Jahán or Khánji Khán, received the title of Jawán Mard Khán, and was appointed Governor of Rádhanpur, Pátan, Warnagar, Visalnagar, Bijápur, Kherálu, etc. His son, again, Kamál-ud-dín Khán, received the title of Jawán Mard Khán II., and usurped the Governorship of Ahmadábád in the disturbed times after the death of Aurangzeb, during the incursions of the Maráthás and the subsequent collapse of the imperial power. During his rule, a branch of the family was able to establish itself at Junágarh and Bálásinor. The founder of the Junágarh house, who was also the first Bábi of Bálásinor (Wárásinor), was Muhammad Bahádur, otherwise known as Sher Khán. In 1753, Raghunáth Ráo Peshwá and Dámáji Gáekwár suddenly appeared before Ahmadábád; and Jawán Mard Khán, after a brilliant defence, was forced to surrender the city, and was confirmed as *jágírdár* of Rádhanpur, Sami, Munjpur, Pátan, Visalnagar, Warnagar, Bijápur, Tharád, and Kherálu. It was agreed at the same time that the

Maráthás should give Jawán Mard Khán the sum of £10,000, besides presenting him with an elephant and other articles of value. Dámájí Gáekwár, however, wrested from his successors all their dominions excepting Rádhanpur, Sami, and Munjpur.

In 1813, Rádhanpur, through Captain Carnac, then Resident of Baroda, concluded an engagement with the Gáekwár, whereby the latter, under the advice of the British authorities, was empowered to control the external relations of Rádhanpur, and assist in defending it from foreign invasion. In 1819, on aid being sought of the British Government by Rádhanpur against the Khosas, a predatory tribe from Sind, Colonel Barclay marched against them and expelled them from Gujarát. In 1820, Major Miles negotiated an agreement with the Nawáb of Rádhanpur. Under the terms of this agreement the Nawáb bound himself not to harbour robbers, or enemies of the British Government; to accompany the British troops with all his forces; and to pay a yearly tribute in proportion to his means. On the 18th February 1822, the yearly tribute was fixed for five years at a sum of £1700. This tribute was, in 1825, remitted by the British Government, and has never again been imposed; the engagement of 1820 remaining in force in other respects.

The present (1882) chief, Nawáb Bismillá Khán, a Pathán of the Bábi family, is forty years old, and administers the State in person. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £60,000 inclusive of transit dues, and maintains a military force of 248 horse and 362 foot. The family of the chief hold a title of adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. In 1883 the State maintained 9 schools with 572 pupils.

Rádhanpur.—Chief town of Rádhanpur State, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 23° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 38′ 40″ E. Population (1872) 13,910; and (1881) 14,722, namely, 7500 males and 7222 females. Hindus number 6787; Muhammadans, 4622; and Jains, 3313. The town lies in the midst of an open plain, mostly under water during the rains. It is surrounded by a loopholed wall 15 feet high, 8 feet broad, and about two and a half miles in circumference, with corner towers, eight bastioned gateways, outworks, and a ditch now filled up. There is also, surrounded by a wall, an inner fort or castle, where the Nawáb lives. A considerable trade centre for Gujarát, Cutch, and Bhaunagar. Nearest railway station, 40 miles distant, at Khárágora. Post-office and dispensary. A municipality has recently been organized; income per annum, £70. Exports—rapeseed, wheat, gram, and cotton; imports—rice, sugar, tobacco, cloth, and ivory. In 1816, and again in 1820, a disease in many symptoms the same as the

true plague or *pestis*, visited Rádhanpur and carried away about one-half of its population.

Rádhápuram. — Town in Nangúneri *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 44′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 5215, inhabiting 1194 houses; and (1881) 2428, inhabiting 535 houses. Head-quarters of a Sub-magistrate, and mission station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Post-office.

Rae Bareli. — Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town in Oudh. — *See* RAI BARELI.

Raegarh.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* RAIGARH.

Raeka.—State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* RAIKA.

Raekot.—Town in Ludhiána District, Punjab.—*See* RAIKOT.

Raesen.—Fort in Málwá, Central India Agency.—*See* RAISIN.

Ragauli. — Village and hill in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ N., long. 80° 22′ E.; distant from Ajaigarh 10 miles north. The old fort, now dismantled, was stormed by the British forces in 1809, during the operations against Lachhman Singh, Rájá of Ajaigarh, whose uncle, Prasád Singh, had fortified this post with considerable strength. The British carried the lower defences with some difficulty, and during the night the enemy evacuated the position. Elevation above sea-level, about 1300 feet. Population of Ragauli village (1881) 861.

Raghugarh (*Rághogarh*).—Guaranteed chiefship, a feudatory of Gwalior, under the superintendence of the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency of Central India. The chief of Raghugarh is recognised as the head of the Kechi clan of Chauhán Rájputs, who originally held possession of nearly all the country round Gúna for a distance of eighty or a hundred miles. In 1780, Mádhují Sindhia imprisoned the Rájá Balwant Singh and his son Jai Singh; and hostilities commenced which lasted till 1818–19, when, through the mediation and guarantee of the British Government, Sindhia ceded to the chief the town and fort of Raghugarh, with adjoining lands estimated to yield a *lákh* (say £10,000) of revenue. In 1843, owing to family disputes, a fresh arrangement was made, by which the *jágír* was divided between the three principal members of the family, viz. Bijai Singh, Chhatar Sál, and Ajít Singh. The present Rájá, Jai Mandal Singh, who succeeded to Ajít Singh's share, holds 120 villages, yielding a revenue of about £2400 per annum. The State of Raghugarh contains, as it now stands, 88 villages with a total population in 1881 of 16,920, namely, 9218 males and 7702 females. Hindus number 14,301; Muhammadans, 782; Jains, 295; and aboriginal tribes, 1542. The aborigines included—Minás, 1198; Bhíls, 218; Moghiás, 105; and Mhars, 21. Since 1843, no less than 32 villages appear to have been deserted. The

State, which lies about 18 miles south of Gúna, contains a great deal of forest land, but the cultivation is generally indifferent. With better management, the estate might be made to yield a much larger revenue.

Raghugarh. — Chief town of the State of Raghugarh, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 26′ N., and long. 77° 15′ E., on a tributary of the Párbatí river, and on the road from Gúna to Mhow (Mau), 16 miles south-west of the former and 169 north-east of the latter. Population (1881) 3266. Raghugarh contains a fort, now much dilapidated, but strong enough at the beginning of the century to withstand for some time the forces of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. The town was founded in the reign of Sháh Jahán (1627–58) by Lál Singh, a Rájput of the Kechi clan, and is still considered the chief town of that clan.

Raghunandan.—Hill range in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam, running north from the State of Hill Tipperah. Estimated area, 61 square miles; height above sea-level, 200 feet.

Raghunáthapuram. — Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 43′ 40″ N., long. 84° 51′ E. Population (1871) 5206, inhabiting 1526 houses; (1881) 7634, inhabiting 1337 houses. Hindus number 7585; Muhammadans, 47; and Christians, 2. Head-quarters of a Sub-magistrate, and the principal town of the ancient *zamíndári* of Tekkali, which pays a *peshkash* or permanent tribute of £4908.

Raghunáthpur.—Hill in Mánbhúm District, Bengal, 8 miles west of Gauráugdihi. Rises abruptly in three prominent peaks, the highest of which is at least 1000 feet above the sea. Raghunáthpur Hill is composed mainly of bare and jagged rock, but is in places thickly covered with dense jungle; it is quite inaccessible to wheeled carriages or beasts of burden, and difficult for men, in some places requiring steps to be cut for a foothold.

Rahá. — Village and police station in Nowgong District, Assam; situated 13 miles south-west of Nowgong town. The population is engaged in fishing and trade, and there is an important ferry over the Kalang.

Ráhatgarh.—Town in Ságar (Saugor) *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 78° 25′ E., 25 miles west of Ságar town. Population (1881) 4013, namely, Hindus, 2803; Muhammadans, 912; Kabírpanthís, 42; and Jains, 256. It was held by a branch of the Bhopál family, one of whom, Sultán Muhammad Khán, built the fort, till 1807, when Daulat Ráo Sindhia took the place after a siege of seven months. In 1810, Ráhatgarh was assigned to the British, with other Districts, for the payment of the contingent; and in 1861 it was ceded unconditionally to the British Government. In 1857, Nawáb Adíl Muhammad Khán and his brother, Fazl Muhammad Khán, descendants of Sultán Muhammad Khán,

with a band of insurgents, seized the fort, which was retaken in the following February by Sir Hugh Rose. Fazl Muhammad Khán was hanged, but his brother escaped. The fort stands on an eminence to the south-west of the town, and is said to have been fifty years in building. The outer defences consist of 26 enormous towers connected by curtain-walls, and enclose 66 acres. This space contained a large *bázár* and many temples and palaces, among them the lofty Bádal Mahál, or 'Cloud Palace,' attributed to one of the Ráj-Gond chiefs of Garhá-Mandlá. The east wall was breached for nearly 100 yards by Sir Hugh Rose's guns in 1858; and most of the buildings and the outer walls are now in a ruinous condition.

Ráhatgarh has a travellers' bungalow, and two Government schools for boys and girls. It manufactures excellent shoes and a native cloth called *dosúti*, which are exported to Ságar and Bhopál, besides being sold, together with all kinds of grain, at the market held in the town every Friday. About a mile from the fort, the Bhopál and Bombay road is carried by a bridge of 14 arches over the river Bíná, which has some beautifully wooded reaches near Ráhatgarh.

Rahímatpur.—Town in the Koregáon Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 35′ 35″ N., and long. 74° 14′ 40″ E., 17 miles south-east of Sátára town. Population (1881) 6082. Hindus number 5485; Muhammadans, 492; Jains, 103; and Christians, 2. Sub-judge's court; post-office; weekly market on Thursday and Friday; two schools with 134 pupils in 1883–84. Rahímatpur is a large trading centre with about 155 prosperous merchants. Bombay and English piece-goods, twist, and silk, salt, cocoa-nuts, dates, and spices are imported; raw sugar, turmeric, earth-nuts, and coriander seed are exported. The chief object of interest is a mosque and mausoleum. The mausoleum seems to have been built in honour of Randullá Khán, a distinguished Bijápur officer, who flourished in the reign of the seventh Bijápur king Mahmúd (1626–1656). About a hundred yards south-east of the mosque is an elephant water-lift, a tower of about 50 feet high, with an inclined plain on the west, which supplied power for the mosque fountain. The municipality was established in 1853, and had in 1883–84 an income of £140; incidence of taxation per head, 5½d.

Rahímnagar Pandiáwán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated on the right bank of the Sai. Population (1881) 2098, dwelling in 360 mud houses. The largest of a group of 12 villages belonging to Pánde Bráhmans. Although, as its name imports, it claims a Muhammadan origin, it is now chiefly inhabited by Hindus. A Pathán family, who live in a hamlet of the village called Balúchgarhi, assert their original right to the land, which they state was granted to their ancestors in *jágír* by the Delhi Emperors, but taken from them

by Nawáb Saádat Alí, and conferred upon the Bráhmans. The country round is in a high state of cultivation.

Rahman-Garh.—Hill in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 21′ N., long. 78° 4′ E.; 4227 feet above sea-level. According to local legend, a giant, one of the Pándu brothers, lies buried underneath. Tipú Sultán, after the capture of Nandidrúg by the British, proposed to fortify this hill, but the design was never carried out.

Ráhon.—Town and municipality in Nawashahr *tahsíl*, Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 3′ N., long. 76° 11′ E., on the high bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), about 3 miles from its present bed, the intermediate space being occupied by a malarious swamp. Population (1881) 11,736, namely, males 6132, and females 5604. Hindus number 5994; Muhammadans, 5683; Sikhs, 58; and 'others,' 1. Number of houses, 1452. Municipal income (1883-84), £664, or an average of 1s. 1½d. per head of the town population. Ráhon is an ancient town, built upon raised ground, and formerly a stronghold of the Rájputs, by whom it was founded. Owing to its distance from the railway, the population of the town has fallen off considerably of late years. Brisk trade in sugar; large manufacture of country cloth. The town contains a rest-house, police station, post-office, dispensary, and flourishing District school, besides an indigenous school. Polluted water-supply; defective sanitary arrangements.

Rahúri.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 497 square miles, containing 111 villages. Population (1872) 59,093; (1881) 63,289, namely, 32,262 males and 31,027 females. Hindus number 57,113; Muhammadans, 3601; and 'others,' 2575. Land revenue (1882), £8518. The Sub-division contains 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thána*), 1; regular police, 39 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 151.

Rahúri is the most central Sub-division of the District, with a length from north to south and a breadth from east to west of about 24 miles each way. It forms part of an extensive plain country drained by the rivers Mula and Pravara, tributaries of the Godávari. The south-eastern boundary is a well-marked range of hills dividing Rahúri from the more elevated Sub-division of Nagar, which forms the water-shed between the Godávari and Bhíma rivers. The highest point, the hill of Gorakhnáth, has an elevation of 2982 feet above sea-level, or about 1200 feet above the level of Rahúri. The Sub-division is scantily wooded, and with the exception of a few mango and tamarind groves chiefly on the bank of rivers near villages, is entirely bare of trees. The prevailing soil is a deep black, requiring much rain to enable it to yield good crops. Towards the hills and on the ridges between the rivers, the soils being lighter and more friable, are better adapted for

the early crops. Four miles of the Ojhár canal, and 17 miles of the Lákh canal, traverse the Sub-division. Early and late crops are grown in about equal proportions; the early crops chiefly in the hill villages, and the late crops in the plains. Of 172,171 acres, the actual area under cultivation in 1881–82, grain crops occupied 154,619 acres, of which 84,240 were under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 12,591 acres; oil-seeds, 2404 acres; fibres, 300 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 2257 acres. The Dhond and Manmád State Railway traverses the Sub-division from north to south. The manufactures are quite insignificant, there being only about 125 looms, of which 100 are for weaving coarse woollen blankets, and 25 for weaving cotton cloth. Survey rates were introduced into Rahúri Sub-division in 1849–50; average incidence, 1s. 2d. an acre. In 1879–80, the Sub-division, which had meanwhile undergone some slight territorial changes, was reassessed. The average incidence of the new rates was 40 per cent. above that of the previous settlement. The average annual rainfall for the eleven years ending 1884 was 21·67 inches, ranging from 10·57 inches in 1876 to 33·10 inches in 1883.

Rahúri. — Town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; head-quarters of Rahúri Sub-division, with a railway station and weekly market. Situated in lat. 19° 23′ N., and long. 74° 42′ E., on the north bank of the Mula river, and 25 miles north of Ahmadnagar. Population (1881) 4304. Independent Márwári traders have a capital of about £15,000. The station of the Dhond-Manmád State line is situated 3 miles to the east. Weekly market on Thursday. Two Government schools for boys and one for girls.

Rái.—Port in the Salsette Sub-division of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873–74, returned at £116,979, namely—imports, £944, and exports, £116,035; and average annual value for the five years ending 1881–82, £22,651, namely—imports, £4163, and exports, £18,488. Value for 1881–82—imports, £12,683, and exports, £59,037. Rái is one of the seven ports forming the Ghorbandar Customs Divisions. Post-office.

Rái Bareli (*Rae Bareli* or *Bareilly*).—Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 25° 34′ and 26° 39′ N. lat., and between 80° 44′ and 82° 44′ E. long. Rái Bareli forms the southernmost Division of Oudh, and comprises the three Districts of RAI BARELI, SULTANPUR, and PARTABGARH (*qq.v.*). It is bounded on the north by Bara Banki and Faizábád Districts; on the east by Azamgarh and Jaunpur Districts of the North-Western Provinces; on the south by Allahábád and Fatehpur Districts; and on the west by Unao and Lucknow. Area, 4881·7 square miles. Population (1869)

2,811,916; (1881) 2,756,864, namely, males 1,362,761, and females 1,394,103, showing a decrease of 55,052, or 1·9 per cent., in thirteen years. Number of towns, 5; and of villages, 6431; occupied houses, 567,908. Average density of population, 564·7 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 1·31; persons per town or village, 428; number of houses per square mile, 116; persons per occupied house, 4·8. Classified according to sex and age, there are—under 15 years of age, males 532,136, and females 478,561; total children, 1,010,697, or 36·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 830,625, and females 915,542; total adults, 1,746,167, or 63·3 per cent.

Religion.—Hindus number 2,493,536, or 90·4 per cent. of the whole population; Muhammadans, 262,892; Sikhs, 192; Christians, 226; Jains, 17; and Pársí, 1. Among the higher class Hindus, Bráhmans number 383,915, constituting the most numerous caste in the Division; Rájputs number 219,190; Bháts, 14,684; Káyasths, 35,356; and Baniyás, 61,029. Of the lower or Súdra castes of Hindus, the most numerous are the following:—Ahír, 331,381; Chamár, 292,329; Kurmí, 171,935; Pásí, 159,797; Káchhí, 126,502; Gadária, 83,963; Lodhí, 60,984; Telí, 52,027; Korí, 50,215; Nái, 47,465; Kahár, 42,574; Lohár, 37,669; Kumbhár, 35,866; Bhurjí, 35,154; Kalwár, 34,702; Dhobí, 33,296; Mallah, 26,460; Loniyá, 26,154; Barhai, 24,359; Tamúlí, 17,098; Sonár, 10,768; Málí, 8659; and Gosain, 5832. The Muhammadans according to sect consist of—Sunnís, 258,229; and Shiás, 4663. The Muhammadans include 17,915 Rájputs by race, 10,806 Gújars, and 359 Mewatís. The Christian community consists of—Europeans, 89; Eurasians, 72; and Natives, 65.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of Rái Bareli Division is purely rural, and there is no tendency on the part of the people to gather into towns. Only five places in the whole Division contain upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, RAI BARELI, population (1881) 11,781; JAIS, 11,044; SULTANPUR, 9374; BELA or MACANDREWGANJ, 5851; and DALMAU, 5367. These five towns contain an urban population of 43,417, or only 1·6 per cent. of the population of the Division. The only three municipalities are Rái Bareli, Sultánpur, and Bela towns, with a total municipal income in 1883–84 of £3359, of which £1944 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of the population (30,175) within municipal limits. Of the 6436 towns and villages comprising Rái Bareli Division, 2318 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 2403 from two to five hundred; 1189 from five hundred to a thousand; 435 from one thousand to two thousand; 65 from two to three thousand; 21 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; and 2

upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population under the following six principal headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 12,484; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 2495; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 11,205; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 632,102; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 113,090; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all general labourers and male children, 591,385.

Agriculture.—Of a total assessed area of 3,117,930 acres, or 4872 square miles, in 1883-84, 1,589,639 acres, or 2483·8 square miles, were returned as under cultivation; 788,648 acres, or 1232·3 square miles, as cultivable; and 739,643 acres, or 1157·7 square miles, as uncultivable waste. Irrigation is more largely resorted to in Rái Bareli Division than in any other part of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; and of the cultivated area, no less than 1,171,638 acres, or 1830·7 square miles, are returned as artificially irrigated entirely by the people themselves, and without any Government irrigation works. The total crop area of the Division in 1884 (including lands bearing two harvests in the year) was 1,907,897 acres, or 2981 square miles, made up as follows:—Rice, 421,726 acres; wheat, 203,715 acres; other food-grains, 1,197,129 acres; oil-seeds, 2867 acres; sugar-cane, 19,559 acres; cotton, 3898 acres; opium, 38,545 acres; indigo, 6077 acres; fibres, 2352 acres; tobacco, 2352 acres; and vegetables, 8677 acres. The total adult agricultural population, male and female, of the Rái Bareli Division in 1881 was returned at 980,736, comprising landholders, 47,886; cultivating tenants, 708,866; agricultural labourers, 222,376; and estate agents, 1608. The male adult agricultural population numbered 628,339; the cultivated area being at the rate of 2·53 acres for each male adult agriculturist. The total population, however, of all ages, dependent upon the soil, is returned at 1,998,957, or 72·51 per cent. of that of the whole Division. Excluding 453·7 square miles held revenue free, the area assessed for Government revenue is 4428 square miles. Total Government assessment in 1881, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £364,064, or an average of 4s. 8d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £691,243, or an average of 8s. 8¼d. per cultivated acre.

The means of communication in 1883-84 included 287 miles of navigable rivers, 1244 miles of made roads, and 6¼ miles of railway, the branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway just cutting across the eastern corner of Sultánpur District. A proposed line of railway from Lucknow to Jaunpur has been surveyed, which when carried out will intersect Rái Bareli and Partábgarh District for their entire length.

The construction of the line, however, has not yet (1885) received the sanction of Government.

Administration. — The total revenue of Rái Bareli Division in 1883–84 amounted to £461,748, of which £340,944 was contributed by the land-tax. Total cost of civil administration, as represented by the cost of District officials and police, £53,852. For administrative and police purposes, the three Districts comprising the Rái Bareli Division are sub-divided into 10 *tahsíls*, 29 *parganás*, and 26 *thánás* or police circles. Justice is administered by a total of 41 magisterial and 40 civil and revenue officers of all grades. The total regular police force in 1883 numbered 1375 officers and men, of whom 84 were employed in towns or municipalities, maintained at a total cost of £14,960, of which £14,524 was paid from Provincial revenues. There is also a village watch or rural police consisting in 1883 of 8574 *chaukídárs*, maintained at a cost of £17,390. The daily average number of prisoners in jail in 1883 was 986·92, or one person always in jail to every 2793 of the population. Government-inspected schools in 1883–84 numbered 323, attended by 13,520 pupils. The Census Report returned 12,128 boys and 207 girls as under instruction in 1881, besides 57,111 males and 845 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Medical relief is afforded by 12 hospitals and dispensaries, which were attended in 1883 by 2001 in-door and 60,764 out-door patients. The total number of registered deaths in 1883 amounted to 75,008, of which 54,289 were from fevers and 8153 from small-pox. Average rate of mortality, 27·2 per thousand of the population. [For further particulars and details, see the separate District articles on RAI BARELI, SULTANPUR, and PARTABGARH.]

Rái Bareli. — District of Oudh in the Rái Bareli Division, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; situated between 25° 49′ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 80° 44′ and 81° 40′ E. long. Area, 1738 square miles. Population (1881) 951,905. It forms the central District of the Rái Bareli Division, and is bounded on the north by Lucknow and Bara Banki; on the east by Sultánpur; on the south by Partábgarh; on the south-west by the Ganges, which separates it from Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces; and on the west by Unao. The civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District are at RAI BARELI TOWN.

Changes of Jurisdiction.—Rái Bareli has undergone many changes of jurisdiction. At the time of annexation, it consisted of the four *tahsíls* of Behar, Dálmau, Bareli, and Haidargarh. These were afterwards reduced to three by the distribution of the Dálmau *parganás* among neighbouring *tahsíls*. On the general redistribution of the Oudh Districts in 1869, Behar *tahsíl* was separated from Rái Bareli and added

to Unao, while Haidargarh was transferred to Bara Banki. On the other hand, the *parganás* of Simrauta, Mohanganj, Inhauna, and Rokha Jáis were added to the District from Sultánpur; and Salon and Parshádepur *parganás* from Partábgarh. Before these last transfers, Rái Bareli District contained an area of 1350 square miles and a population (1869) of 782,874. Its present area is returned in the Provincial Census Report for 1881 at 1738 square miles, with a population of 951,905. The District is at present composed of 4 *tahsíls* as follows:—(1) Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, consisting of the *parganá* of Rái Bareli; (2) Dálmau *tahsíl*, with the 3 *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khiron; (3) Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, with the 6 *parganás* of Inhauna, Bachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simrauta, and Mohanganj; and (4) Salon *tahsíl*, with the 3 *parganás* of Salon, Parshádepur, and Rokha Jáis.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the District is that of a slightly undulating plain, which, as the country is beautifully wooded, chiefly with mango and *mahuá* groves, gives it a variety not often seen in the valley of the Ganges. The fertility of the soil is remarkable; and the cultivation being of a high class, the beauty of the country is not to be surpassed by any part of the plain of Hindustán. Scattered here and there all over the District, and more specially towards the Ganges, are noble trees, generally *bargad* or *pípal.* Trees are not, however, grown for timber. The *babúl* is not plentiful, and the bamboo is very scarce, while the *shísham* and the *tún*, both of which thrive well, and would yield a certain revenue from lands which are too broken for cultivation, are only found in the District where planted as ornamental trees since our occupation of the country.

The principal rivers are the Ganges and the Sai, the former skirting the District for 54 miles along its south-western boundary, while the latter runs through the centre of the District in a tortuous direction from north-west to south-east. The Ganges is everywhere navigable by boats of 1200 *maunds*, or nearly 50 tons burthen. The Sai is navigable during the rains, but few or no boats now ply. The banks of both are high and generally precipitous, and the level of the water is 70 or 80 feet below the surface of the country; the beds are sandy. The rivers are not therefore of much value for irrigation, except for the alluvial bottoms in the immediate neighbourhood. There are no large towns on their banks, and no centres of trade or commerce. Very little fishing is carried on except in the *jhíls.* The Sai is spanned by a fine bridge at Rái Bareli, erected in 1864, and is crossed by numerous ferries. The extreme flood discharge of the Sai is about 6000 cubic feet per second; average discharge during the five rainy months, about 1000 cubic feet; minimum discharge in the dry weather, about 25 feet. The minor

rivers are—(1) the Lún, which rises in a swamp in Unao, and, after a course of 30 miles in Rái Bareli, falls into the Ganges in Dálmau *parganá*; the stream dries up in the hot weather: (2) the Basáha, a watercourse dry during the hot weather, but a rather formidable stream during heavy rains; it enters this District from Unao, and finally falls into the Sai a few miles west of Rái Bareli town: (3) the Naiya is also a watercourse dry during the hot months; it enters this District from Lucknow, and flows in three channels during the rains, two streams passing into Sultánpur District, and one finding its way into the Sai. The principal *jhíl* is the Múng *tál*, a shallow lake about 1500 acres in extent, extensively used for irrigation by the neighbouring villages, and also valuable for its fish and water-fowl.

The indigenous timber trees are *tún* (Cedrela Toona), *shísham* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *dhák* (Butea frondosa), and *babúl* (Acacia arabica). Numerous varieties of thatching grass are found, and a variety of rice known as *pasáhi* grows wild in many tanks and marshes. Lac and silk cocoons constitute the principal jungle products. Herds of wild cattle were formerly found in Sálon *parganá* near the Sai river, and did much harm to the crops, but scarcely any are now left. They are generally very poor, small animals, but occasionally a fine bull is seen among them. The villagers catch the male calves, which, if taken young, are easily domesticated, and they grow into tolerable bullocks. *Nílgái* are common near the Ganges, and wolves are occasionally met with in jungly tracts. Tigers or leopards are not found.

Population.—The population of Rái Bareli in 1869, after the transfers enumerated in a previous section of this article, was returned at 989,008. The last Census in 1881 returned the population of the District at 951,905, showing a decrease of 37,103, or 3·7 per cent., in the twelve years since 1869, mainly owing to the heavy mortality caused by the famine of 1877-78. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1738·3 square miles, with 3 towns and 1759 villages; number of houses, 180,548. Total population, 951,905, namely, males 466,906, and females 484,999; proportion of males, 49·05 per cent. Average density of population, 547·6 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·01; persons per town or village, 540; houses per square mile, 103·8; persons per house, 5·2. Classified according to sex and age, there are—under 15 years of age, males 178,466, and females 163,400; total children, 341,866, or 35·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 288,440, and females 321,599; total adults, 610,039, or 64·1 per cent.

Religion.—Hindus form the great majority of the population, numbering in 1881, 874,345, or 91·8 per cent.; Muhammadans number 77,424, or 8·1 per cent.; Jains, 13; Christians, 123; and Sikhs, 165

Among the higher class Hindus, Bráhmans number 113,212, forming the second most numerous caste in the District; Rájputs number 68,491; Bháts, 4872; Káyasths, 13,247; and Baniyás, 16,610. The lower or Súdra castes include the following:—Ahír, 114,869, the most numerous caste in the District; Pásí, once a dominant aboriginal tribe, 82,519; Chamár, 81,608; Kachhí, 55,830; Lodhí, 54,932; Kurmí, 45,227; Korí, 30,680; Gadária, 26,813; Telí, 20,782; Nái, 19,354; Dhobí, 11,615; Bhurjí, 11,472; Kumbhár, 11,212; Barhai, 11,198; Kahár, 10,296; Lohár, 10,081; Kalwár, 9008; Tamúlí, 7423; Loniyá, 6342; Málí, 4966; Sonár, 4596; Dom, 3879; and Gosain, 2804. The Muhammadans classified according to sect consist of—Sunnís, 75,222; and Shiás, 2202. The Muhammadans include 4256 Rájputs, 6438 Gújars, and 204 Mewatís by race descent. The Christian community consists of—Europeans, 31; Eurasians, 44; and Natives, 48.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of Rái Bareli District is purely rural, the only three towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants being—RAI BARELI, population (1881) 11,781; JAIS, 11,044; DALMAU, 5367: total urban population, 28,192, or only 2·9 per cent. of the District population. The only municipality is Rái Bareli town, with an income in 1883–84 of £1906, of which £1073 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¾d. per head of the population (16,269) within municipal limits. Of the 1762 towns and villages in the District, 503 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 656 from two to five hundred; 377 from five hundred to a thousand; 177 from one to two thousand; 31 from two to three thousand; 15 from three to five thousand; and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 5964; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1575; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3533; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 232,328; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 45,052; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all general labourers and male children, 178,454.

Agriculture.—Of a total assessed area of 1,107,124 acres, or 1730 square miles, in 1883–84, 569,582 acres are returned as under cultivation; 329,213 acres as cultivable; and 208,329 acres as uncultivable waste. Irrigation by private individuals from wells, tanks, etc., is largely resorted to, and 423,772 acres were thus irrigated in 1883–84. The total crop area of Rái Bareli District in 1884 (including lands bearing two harvests in the year) was 676,110 acres, or 1056·4 square miles, made up as follows:—Rice, 128,698 acres; wheat,

79,251 acres; other food-grains, 436,853 acres; oil-seeds, 684 acres; sugar-cane, 879 acres; cotton, 2916 acres; opium, 21,869 acres; indigo, 57 acres; fibres, 436 acres; tobacco, 879 acres; and vegetables, 3588 acres.

Rates of rent are reported to be much higher than the general average for the Province, owing to the density of the population, and to the irrigation facilities afforded by numerous masonry wells. An official return gives the average rates in 1883-84 as follows:—Rice, 9s. per acre; wheat, 15s. 6d.; inferior grains, 8s. 2d.; opium, 17s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 9s.; sugar, 16s. 9d.; tobacco, £1, 1s. 9d.; cotton, 13s. 3d. The highest rents are for lands in the vicinity of the towns. Opium-fields so situated pay as high as Rs. 13 per local *bighá*, or £2, 1s. 6d. per acre; ordinary wheat lands, irrigated from the tenants' own wells, pay Rs. 7 per *bighá*, or £1, 2s. 4d. per acre; and unirrigated lands, which grow nothing but gram, barley, and *arhar*, pay Rs. 5 per *bighá*, or 16s. per acre, if the soil is not very sandy. Poor sandy soils, remote from village sites, rent as low as 2s. an acre. The settlement officer estimates that one man with a single pair of bullocks can cultivate fairly about 4 acres, from which he may calculate on an average yield of 12 *maunds*, or 8¾ cwts. per acre. The average value of the total produce, together with the straw, is about £9, 12s.; and taking the landlord's share at one-third, the rent of the holding would be about £3, 4s., or 16s. per acre.

The total agricultural population, male and female, of Rái Bareli in 1881 was returned at 374,052, comprising 9282 landholders, 273,135 tenant cultivators, 90,082 agricultural labourers, and 1553 estate agents, etc. The male adult agricultural population numbered 230,912, giving an average of 2·47 cultivated acres for each male adult agriculturist. The total population, however, dependent upon the soil, is returned at 700,379, or 73·58 per cent. of the District population. Excluding 416·9 square miles which are held revenue free, the area assessed for Government revenue is 1321·4 square miles. Total Government assessment in 1881, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £134,570, or an average of 4s. 7⅞d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, etc., £278,017, or 9s. 8¼d. per cultivated acre.

The average out-turn per acre of the different crops is thus returned for 1883-84:—Rice, 521 lbs.; wheat, 818 lbs.; inferior food-grains, 654 lbs.; indigo, 22 lbs.; cotton, 59 lbs.; opium, 22 lbs.; oil-seeds, 333 lbs.; fibres, 486 lbs.; sugar, 918 lbs.; and tobacco, 687 lbs. Labourers and village servants are paid chiefly in grain; some receive grants of rent-free land in payment. Unskilled labourers are paid at the rate of about 5⅜d., and skilled labourers 7½d. per diem. The agricultural stock of the District in 1883-84 was returned as follows:—Cows and

bullocks, 337,898; horses, 2340; ponies, 4281; donkeys, 5720; sheep and goats, 115,402; pigs, 67,012; carts, 3527; and ploughs, 90,837. The average prices of food-grains and other produce during 1883-84 throughout the District were—wheat, best, 5s. 1d. per cwt., common, 4s. 9d. per cwt.; rice, best, 8s. 2d. per cwt., common, 6s. 10d. per cwt.; gram, 3s. 10d. per cwt.; sugar, refined, £1, 16s. per cwt., and unrefined, 9s. 11d. per cwt.; and salt, 10s. 11d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—In years of scarcity, Rái Bareli is worse off than other Districts of Oudh, having as yet (1885) no railway, and only 83 miles of water communication along its outer border. On the other hand, its masonry wells afford it a greater assurance against famine, its drainage is superior to that of other Districts, it suffers comparatively less from floods, and its area of artificial irrigation is so large that absolute famine ought to be almost unknown. Great scarcity from a deficiency of rainfall in October for the winter rice, and in January for the spring crops, is, however, common. On an average, in five years out of ten, the October and January rains are so scanty as to be of no practical value. The average annual rainfall is 33 inches, or about the same as Lucknow; the rains were specially deficient in 1864, 1868, 1873, and 1877-78, when the rainfall was respectively 22, 19, 41, and 13·9 inches. In 1873, although the rainfall was above the average, the distribution was unequal, and the September-October rains were deficient. The year 1784-85 was one of severe drought and famine, and considerable scarcity occurred in 1770 and 1810. In 1864, 1869, and 1874, there was very considerable scarcity in the District, approaching to famine. No special Government measures were called for, and the people were employed on the local roads. In 1877-78, the deficiency in the rainfall was followed by widespread scarcity, causing acute distress for a considerable time, while actual famine prevailed for about two months. Special relief measures were organized; relief works put in hand, and poorhouses opened by Government. The landlords and well-to-do classes generally also liberally came forward by furnishing work and food to those in distress.

The food of the people is the same as that consumed throughout the rest of Oudh. *Moth*, or peas pottage, and barley bread, or cakes made of barley and gram mixed, form the ordinary food of the people. There are generally two meals in the day, at noon and at sunset; but if the people are very poor, they content themselves with one meal at sunset, and a little of what is left served up cold the next morning, and called *bási*. *Sánwán* and *kodo* are largely consumed in the rainy season. Rice and maize are less used than in Northern and Western Oudh. Three-quarters of a *ser*, or 1½ lb., is reckoned a meagre daily allowance for a man, and 10 *chhatáks*, or 1¼ lb., a famine allowance of the grains above alluded to.

The Land Tenures are principally *tálukdári.* The returns received for the first edition of this work show 1198 villages held under this description of tenure, and 537 held as *zamíndári* by smaller proprietors. Among the latter, sub-division of property has been carried to an extreme degree, the 537 villages being held by no less than about 11,000 small proprietors, two-thirds of whom possess on an average not more than 10 acres of land each. On the other hand, in the *tálukdári* estates, 11 proprietors hold among them 350,000 acres; and no less than 816,000 acres, or two-thirds of the entire District, are held in 62 great estates, owned by 100 chiefs. Thirty-five *tálukdárs* pay a Government revenue exceeding £500 a year, varying from £643 for the Usah estate of 6 villages and an area of 5000 acres, to £11,342 for the large property of Tholri, which comprises 129 villages, and covers an area of 92,260 acres. The principal landed proprietors are the Tilok Chándi Báis, whose estates lie in the west of the District, comprising *parganás* Dálmau, Rái Bareli, Sareni, Khiron, Hardoi, and others; and the Kanhpurias in the east, who hold Sálon, Rokha Jáis, Parshádepur, Mohanganj, and Simrauta.

Means of Communication, etc.—Rái Bareli District contains 516¾ miles of made road, the principal lines being as follows:—(1) From Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Fatehpur, length within the District, 17 miles; (2) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Unao, 38 miles; (3) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Allahábád, 14 miles; (4) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Partábgarh, 10 miles; (5) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Sultánpur, 8 miles; (6) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Faizábád (Fyzábád), 12 miles; (7) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Lucknow, 24 miles; (8) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Dálmau to Haidargarh, 28 miles; (9) from Rái Bareli *viâ* Lálganj to Ráipur, 28 miles; (10) from Lálganj *viâ* Bachhráwán to Haidargarh, 40 miles; (11) from Dálmau to Behar, 18 miles; (12) from Digbijáiganj *viâ* Bachhráwán, 18 miles; (13) from Behar to Purwa, 6 miles; (14) from Behar to Baksár, 12 miles; (15) from Chándakitur to Unao, 36 miles; (16) from Chándakitur to Sálon, 10 miles; (17) from Lucknow *viâ* Haidargarh to Sultánpur, 13 miles. Only the first-named road is metalled. There are no railways as yet (1885) within the District, but the projected line from Lucknow to Jaunpur will, when completed, intersect Rái Bareli throughout its entire length from east to west. Water communication is afforded by the Ganges, which flows along the south-eastern boundary of the District. Total length of navigable rivers, 83 miles.

The District manufactures consist of a little cloth-weaving for local use, the making of brass and copper utensils, and a little glass-ware, principally bottles for holding Ganges water.

Administration.—Rái Bareli is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, assisted by one or more Assistant Commissioners, 2 Native

Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, and 7 Honorary Magistrates. The jurisdiction of the Civil Judge extends over the neighbouring Districts of Sultánpur and Partábgarh. Subordinate Civil Judges (*munsifs*) are stationed at Rái Bareli and Dálmau. The District is divided into 4 *tahsíls* or revenue Sub-divisions, comprising 13 *parganás*, as follows:—(1) Dálmau *tahsíl*, comprising the *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khiron; (2) Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, which is conterminous with Rái Bareli *parganá*; (3) Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, comprising *parganás* Inhauna, Bachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simrauta, and Mohanganj; (4) Sálon *tahsíl*, comprising *parganás* Sálon, Parshádepur, and Rokha Jáis.

The total revenue, imperial and local, of Rái Bareli District in 1872-73 was £149,306, of which £122,411 was derived from the land-tax. The expenditure in the same year amounted to £28,597. In 1883-84, the total District revenue amounted to £155,152, the principal items being—land revenue, £130,035; stamps, £9807; and excise, £14,166. The civil expenditure, as represented by the cost of the District officials and police, amounted in the same year to £23,973.

Rái Bareli contains 17 civil and revenue, and 20 magisterial courts. For police purposes, the District is divided into 10 police circles, namely, Rái Bareli, Bachhráwán, Mohanganj, Digbijáiganj, Gúrbakshganj, Dálmau, Sareni, Mau, Jagatpur, and Sálon. The total regular police force in 1883 numbered 509 officers and men, of whom 31 were employed in town duty; maintained at a total cost of £5472, of which £5298 was paid from Provincial revenues. There is also a village watch or rural police, consisting in 1883 of 3115 men, maintained at a cost of £7788. The total police force of the District, therefore, amounted to 3624 of all ranks, being at the rate of one policeman to every ·5 square mile of area, or one to every 263 of population; total cost, £13,260, or £7, 12s. 7d. for every square mile of area, or 3¼d. per head of population. The daily average number of prisoners in jail in 1883 was 401, of whom 64 were females.

Education is afforded by 132 Government-inspected schools, including a high school at the civil station, attended in 1883-84 by 5683 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 6034 boys and 122 girls as under instruction, besides 25,103 males and 332 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The average monthly and annual rainfall of Rái Bareli District for the fourteen years ending 1881 is returned as follows: —January, 0·47 inch; February, 0·29; March, 0·28; April, 0·16; May, 0·29; June, 3·86; July, 9·90; August, 8·38; September, 7·95; October, 1·15; November, 0·03; and December, 0·13 inch: average for the year, 32·89 inches. The rainfall, however, is very capricious, and

frequently fails in the very months when it is most needed for agricultural purposes, although the total for the year may be equal to the average. No thermometrical returns are available.

The prevalent disease is fever, but cholera and small-pox also carry off yearly numbers of victims. Cattle-disease is common. Five charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1883 to 518 in-door and 29,665 out-door patients. The total number of registered deaths in 1883 amounted to 29,675, of which 20,603 were ascribed to fevers and 5063 to small-pox. Average rate of mortality, 31·94 per thousand; as against a mean rate of 33·74 per thousand for the five previous years. [For further particulars regarding Rái Bareli, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Oudh*, vol. iii. pp. 171–260 (Allahábád Government Press, 1878); the *Land Settlement Report of Rái Bareli District*, by Mr. J. F. MacAndrew, C.S. (1872); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several annual Provincial and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Rái Bareli.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division and *parganá*, both conterminous, in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mahárájganj, on the east by Sálon, and on the south and west by Lálganj and Purwá. Area, 371¼ square miles, or 237,730 acres, divided into 363 villages, of which 244 are held in *tálukdárí*, 58 in *zamíndárí*, and 61 in *pattidárí* tenure. Population (1869) 212,905; (1881) 199,095, namely, males 98,203, and females 100,892; decrease of population since 1869, 13,810, or 6·5 per cent. in twelve years, caused principally by the severe famine of 1877–78. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 183,345; Muhammadans, 15,524; and 'others,' 226. The principal land-holding caste are the Báis Kshattriyas, descendants of the great Báis Rájá Tilok Chand. Government land revenue, £25,517, at the rate of 2s. 2⅞d. per acre. The Sub-division contained in 1884 (including head-quarters) 3 civil and 11 criminal courts, with 2 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 36 men, and a village watch or rural police of 622 *chaukídárs*.

Rái Bareli.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and administrative head-quarters of the District; situated on the banks of the Sai, 48 miles south-east of Lucknow, in lat. 26° 13′ 50″ N., and long. 81° 16′ 25″ E. The town was founded by the Bhars, and called after them Bharauli, subsequently corrupted into Bareli. With regard to the prefix Rái, one story asserts that it is derived from Ráhi, a village near the town; while another attributes the name to the fact of the place having long been in the possession of a Káyasth family bearing the title of Rái. After the expulsion of the Bhars by Ibráhím Shárki of Jaunpur, early in the 15th century, the town passed into the possession of the Muhammadans. Population (1869), including the suburb of Jahánábád,

11,544; (1881) 11,781, namely, males 5970, and females 5811. Hindus number 6262; Muhammadans, 5451; Christians, 33; and 'others,' 35. Number of houses, 2356, of which 457 are brick-built. The municipal limits extend beyond the town, and include a total population of 16,269; municipal income (1883-84), £1906, of which £1073 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2¾d. per head of municipal population. Three large markets, with daily sales averaging £118.

The town possesses many architectural features, the principal being a spacious and strong fort erected by Ibráhím Shárki, and constructed of bricks 2 feet long by 1 thick and 1½ wide, probably taken from more ancient strongholds of the previous Bhar possessors. In the centre of the fort is a huge well or *baoli*, 108 yards in circumference, dug down to the springs, and then lined with brick walls supporting balconies, and containing chambers on a level with the water. These are now more or less in ruins. Tradition relates that when the fort was building, all that was erected during the day fell down in the course of the ensuing night. In his perplexity, the king had resort to a holy man of Jaunpur, Makhdum Sayyid Jáfri, who walked over the ground, after which no interruption occurred in the work. The saint's tomb stands beside the gate of the fort. The other ancient buildings are the magnificent palace and tomb of Nawáb Jahán Khán, the Governor in the time of Aurangzeb, and 4 handsome mosques. One of them is without domes, but has three spacious halls, and is said to be a copy of the Ka'aba at Mecca. A handsome bridge was constructed over the Sai a few years ago, at the expense of the neighbouring landholders. Besides the usual Government courts and buildings, the town contains 2 schools, one supported by a Christian mission; a *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, and a charitable dispensary. Attached to the dispensary is a poorhouse under the management of the civil surgeon, at which indigent blind, lame, and decrepit persons receive gratuitous food and clothing.

Ráichúr.—Old town and fort in the Haidarábád State, Nizám's Dominions, Southern India. Lat. 16° 12′ N., long. 77° 24′ 30″ E. Situated in the south-west corner of the Nizám's Dominions, nearly midway between the Kistna and Tungabhadra rivers. Population (1881) 15,387. The fort presents a picturesque appearance; the citadel, protected by a double line of fortification, rises 290 feet above the plain. A short distance from the west gate of the fortress are the remains of a strongly built palace, now utilized as a jail. The town stands to the east of the fort. It is well built, and traversed by good streets. Ráichúr is famous for its glazed pottery and slippers. The railway station, which is the junction of the Great Indian Peninsula with the Madras line, is one mile and a half from the town.

Ráidhák.—River of Northern Bengal; rises in the Bhután Hills, and flows southwards through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí District, till it enters Kuch Behar territory near the small village of Bhurjkutí. In its upper course through Jalpáigurí, which it enters in lat. 26° 43′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 48′ E., this river forms a large island by throwing off a branch stream, called the Máinágáon *nadí*, which leaves the Ráidhák at the point where it enters the District, and rejoins it about 8 or 9 miles lower down. The Ráidhák cuts across the eastern angle of Kuch Behar, and unites with the Káljání, flowing in the same direction, to form the Sankos. The combined streams fall into the Brahmaputra below Dhubrí.

Ráidrug.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Area, 898 square miles. Population (1881) 83,799, namely, 42,778 males and 41,021 females, dwelling in 1 town and 147 villages, containing 16,017 occupied houses. Hindus number 78,899; Muhammadans, 4875; Christians, 10; and 'others,' 15. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 60 men. Land revenue, £13,439. Cotton soil in the north and west.

Ráidrug (*Ráyadrug*).—Town in Ráidrug *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 41′ 50″ N., long. 76° 52′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 8766, inhabiting 1571 houses. Hindus number 7298; Muhammadans, 1455; Christians, 2; and 'others,' 11. Consists of a citadel and lower fort, the latter containing the town, which is regularly laid out. The citadel occupies the summit of a mass of granite rocks, rising to the height of 1200 feet, and connected by a lower ridge with a group of wild hills, which form the north-eastern boundary of the plain of Chitaldrug. The south face of the rock is abrupt and inaccessible. The lower fort is guarded by a triple line of works, and a narrow pathway hewn in the rock leads from it to the citadel. At intervals along this path are gateways of solid masonry and fresh lines of fortification. About half-way up the hill is the old palace of the *pálegár*, said to have been built about the beginning of the 16th century; and close by are two handsome temples dedicated to Ráma and Krishna. There are also the ruins of houses and gardens on the rock, but few people now live there.

The earlier *pálegárs* of Ráidrug were Boyas; and it is said that the palace and the forts were built by one of them, named Janga Náyak. About the end of the 16th century, this family seems to have been deposed; and one of the descendants of the ex-Commander-in-Chief of Vijayanagar succeeded in making himself master of Ráidrug and the adjacent fort of Konderpi-drug. In 1766 the *pálegár* assisted Haidar Alí at the siege of Sirá, as a reward for which his tribute was reduced to Rs. 50,000 (say £5000) as soon as Haidar became master of the country. Subsequently the *pálegár*, Venkatapati Náyudu, gave

offence to Tipú by refusing to join him when about to attack Adoni. Tipú captured Ráidrug and sent the *pálegár* to Seringapatam, where he was assassinated in 1791, just before Ráidrug was stormed by Lord Cornwallis. In 1799, his sister's son, Gopál Náyudu, was released from Seringapatam, and soon made his way to Ráidrug, where he attempted to collect a following. He was taken prisoner by Muhammad Amín Khán, who had been sent by the Nizám to settle the District, and was taken to Haidarábád. After the cession to the British, he was sent to Gooty (Gúti), where he resided as a *quasi*-State prisoner till his death. Pensions were granted to his family, which is now extinct.

Ráiganj. — Town in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 36′ 40″ N., and long. 88° 9′ 48″ E., on the river Kulik. An important seat of river trade. In 1876–77, the registered exports were valued at £108,820, chiefly jute (£28,000), gunny-bags (£51,000), grain (£9000); the imports were valued at £13,503, including salt (£9000) and raw cotton (£3000). In 1881 the exports were valued at £47,300, and the imports at £12,000. Ráiganj is a substantial town, surrounded by extensive rice-fields, and contains numerous tanks. A dispensary was established here in 1872.

Ráigarh.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 45′ and 22° 35′ N. lat., and between 83° and 83° 35′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Native States of Sargúja and Gángpur in Chutiá Nágpur; on the south by the river Mahánadi and Sambalpur District; on the east by the Kodabága *zamíndárí* and Gángpur State; and on the west by Chandrapur Chiefship and Saktí. Population (1881) 128,943 (of whom 121,256 were Hindus); residing in 685 villages or townships and 23,282 houses, on an area of 1486 square miles, 300 of which are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste 400 are returned as cultivable.

Towards the Mahánadi on the south, Ráigarh is well cultivated, though the soil is poor and sandy; but the northern and eastern parts are a waste of hill and jungle, containing *sál*, *sáj*, *bíjesál*, and many other kinds of useful timber, but no teak of any size. The principal rivers are the Mahánadi and its affluents, the Tedí, Mán, and Kelú. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also produced, besides a little wheat and gram. The jungles yield lac, *tasar*-silk, and *rál*, or *sál* resin. The manufactures are unimportant. They consist of brass and bell-metal vessels, *tasar*-silk fabrics, and coarse cotton cloth. Iron-ore is abundant, but no mines are worked regularly. The road from Sambalpur to Biláspur passes through the south of the State. The chief is a Gond; and, according to tradition, his ancestor Thákur Daryáo Singh obtained the title of Rájá for assistance afforded to the Maráthás. The State

now includes the once independent chiefship of Bargarh, which was conferred on the family about fifty years ago. Four subordinate chiefships are held by connections of the Rájá, viz.—Anjár Singh, possessing 12 villages; Amar Singh, 5; Thákur Raghunáth Singh, 30; and Thákur Parameswar Singh, 30. The supposed gross revenue of the State amounts to £2800, and the tribute is fixed at £40. The climate resembles that of Sambalpur District, and is thought unhealthy. Fever is the prevailing disease, especially from September to November; and in the hot season, cholera is a frequent visitant.

Ráigarh.—Chief town of Ráigarh State, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 54′ N., and long. 83° 25′ E. Population (1881) 4860, namely, Hindus, 4361; Kabírpanthís, 3; Satnámís, 2; Muhammadans, 328; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 166. The town is the residence of the Rájá of the State, and contains a fairly attended school.

Ráigarh (*Ráygad*, or the 'Royal Fort;' originally called *Ráiri*, and known to the early Europeans as the Gibraltar of the East).—Town and fort in Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 14′ N., long. 73° 30′ E.; 32 miles south-west from Poona, 65 south-east from Bombay. Situated among the Northern Gháts, and regarded in the last century as one of the greatest strongholds of India. Its scarped sides and long top form a great wedge-shaped block, cut from the Sahyádri hills by a deep valley about a mile broad at the base and two miles across from crest to crest. The hill-top, 2851 feet above sea-level, stretches about a mile and a half from east to west by a mile from north to south. On the west, south, and east, the hill-sides are so steep that, excepting the gateways in the west and south faces, there are no artificial defences. The north-west face is protected by a main line of masonry and two upper walls or portions of walls where the natural scarp is imperfect. Its size, strength, and its easy communication with the Deccan and with the sea, must from early times have made Ráigarh an important fortress. But its time of magnificence as the capital of a great sovereign lasted from 1664 to 1680, the last sixteen years of Sivají's reign.

In the twelfth century, Ráiri was the seat of a family of petty Maráthá chiefs. In the fourteenth century these chiefs acknowledged the Vijayanagar princes as their overlords. About the middle of the fifteenth century, Alá-ud-dín Sháh Báhmani II. compelled the Ráiri chief to pay tribute. In 1479, Ráiri passed to the Nizámsháhi rulers of Ahmadnagar; and was held by them till 1636. On the final conquest of Ahmadnagar, the Mughals made Ráiri over to the Adilsháhi kings of Bijápur. Under Bijápur, with the name of Islámgarh, it was made over to the Sidi of Janjira, and garrisoned by a body of Maráthás. In 1648, Ráiri fell into the hands of Sivají, who in 1662, after diligent

search, chose the hill for his capital, changing the name to Ráigarh. The royal and public buildings are said to have numbered 300 stone houses, including palaces, mansions, offices, mint, granaries, magazines, quarters for a garrison of 2000 men, a market nearly a mile in length, and a number of rock-cut and masonry cisterns. While the hill-top was being covered with these buildings, care was taken to complete its defences.

In 1664, Sivají enriched Ráigarh with the plunder of Surat, and made it the seat of his government. In the same year, after the death of his father Sháhji, Sivají came to Ráigarh, assumed the title of Rájá, and struck coins in his own name. In 1674, Sivají was crowned with much splendour as an independent prince at Ráigarh, and died here six years afterwards in 1680. In 1690, Ráigarh was taken by Aurangzeb; but having reverted to the Maráthás during the decay of the Muhammadan power, it was invested by a British force in April 1818, and surrendered after a bombardment from the hill spur called Kál-kái lasting 14 days. A treasure of £50,000 in coin was discovered among the ruins of the fort.

Ráigarh (*Raegarh*).—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 6 miles from Behar, on the Partábgarh road. Population (1881) 2374, namely, Hindus 2100, and Musalmáns 274. Three Hindu temples and one mosque; small *bázár*.

Raika.—One of the petty States at Rewá Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2½ square miles. There are two chiefs. The revenue was estimated in 1875 at £270; and in 1884 at £170. Two-thirds of the State belong to the original proprietors, and one-third to the *Pagedár* of Baroda. Tribute of £120 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Ráikot.—Town and municipality in Jagráon *tahsíl*, Ludhiána District, Punjab, and former capital of a Native State; situated in lat. 30° 39′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., 30 miles south-west of Ludhiána town. Residence of a celebrated family of Muhammadan Rájputs, the Ráis of Ráikot, who held a position of great importance in early times. Tulsi Dás, founder of the family, emigrated from Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere) in 1323, and settled at Farídkot. He embraced the Muhammadan creed, and took the name of Shaikh Chachu. His descendants founded the towns of Sháhjahánpur (in Ludhiána) and Talwandi. They obtained the title of Rái from an Emperor Alá-ud-dín, probably the Sayyid prince who reigned from 1445 to 1478. They acquired possession of Ludhiána town in 1620; and during the 18th century owned a considerable tract of country, extending apparently beyond the Sutlej (Satlaj). After the rise of the Sikh power, the Ráis held their own till the beginning of the present century, by calling in the aid of George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána. Rái Alyás, the last independent prince, died in 1802, and left the territory to his mother, Núr-ul-Nissa.

In 1806, Ranjít Singh, crossing the Sutlej to aid the Rájás of Nábha and Jínd against their neighbour of Patiála, took the opportunity of reducing the Muhammadan family, whose dominions he divided between himself and his allies. Rání Núr-ul-Nissa retained possession of Ráikot itself, and other members of the family received small *jágírs*. On the extension of British protection to the CIS-SUTLEJ STATES, our Government recognised the *de facto* title of Ranjít Singh's grantees; and only allowed the Rání's claim to the territories which she held at the date of British occupation. Núr-ul-Nissa died in 1831, and was succeeded by her daughter-in-law, widow of Rái Alyás, by name Bhág Bhari. On her death in 1854, the British Government recognised her nephew and adopted son, Imám Bakhsh Khán, as heir to her estate and to the title of Rái. Besides the revenues of Ráikot and Mallah, he receives from Government a pension of £200 a year.

Ráikot town is surrounded by a wall, and substantially built. It contains several handsome houses, the property of the Rái and of Sikh gentlemen of the neighbourhood. Population (1881) 9219, namely, Muhammadans, 5281; Hindus, 2855; Sikhs, 838; and Jains, 245. Number of houses, 1384. Police station, post-office, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1883-84, £368, or 9½d. per head of population.

Ráimangal.—Estuary in the Sundarbans, Bengal. Its entrance is situated about 12 miles eastward of the GUASUBA RIVER; and about 6 miles from the sea it receives the united streams of three rivers—the Háriábhángá being the westernmost, the Ráimangal proper the next, and the Jamuná the easternmost. The point of land on the west side of the entrance is situated in lat. 21° 37′ N., with a depth of 5 or 6 fathoms in the channel close to it, and with from 10 to 12 fathoms inside towards the Háriábhángá river. From the point to seaward, the depth decreases gradually to 4 fathoms in the western channel, the outer part of which is separated from the Guásubá by a sandbank which stretches out from the land between them. The eastern channel leads directly to the entrance of the Ráimangal and Jamuná rivers, having a sandbank between it and the western channel, with deep water inside. According to Captain Horsburgh's *Sailing Directions*, two considerable reefs of breakers have formed on the western side of the channel leading to these rivers, situated respectively at 5 and 10 miles from the land.

Ráimatlá.—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal.—*See* MATLA.

Ráiná.—Village and *tháná* or police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ 20″ N., long. 87° 56′ 40″ E. Population under 5000.

Ráingarh.—Fort in Keunthál State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 7′ N., long.

77° 48′ E. It crowns an isolated hill on the left bank of the river Pábar, which is here crossed by a wooden bridge. Belonged to Bashahr before the Gúrkha invasion; surrendered to the British in 1815, and transferred to Keunthál in exchange for territory now forming part of Simla District. Small community of Bráhmans hold the surrounding valley, and have charge of two temples of Tibetan architecture. Elevation of fort above sea-level, 5408 feet.

Ráipur. — British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 19° 48′ and 21° 45′ N. lat., and betweeen 80° 28′ and 82° 38′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Bilás-pur, on the south by Bastar, on the east by petty States attached to Sambalpur District, and on the west by Chándá and Bálághát. Population of the British District in 1881, 1,405,171 persons; area, 11,885 square miles. Within the geographical limits of Ráipur are the four dependent Feudatory States of CHHUIKHADAN, KANKER, KHAIRAGARH, and NANDGAON (*qq.v.*), with a total area of 2658 square miles, and a population (1881) of 427,066. Total for Ráipur District and the four attached States — area, 14,543; population (1881) 1,832,237. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at RAIPUR, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Ráipur forms the southern portion of the Chhatís-garh country, which may be generally described as the basin of the Upper Mahánadi and its tributaries, together with the hills in which these tributaries take their rise. The District spreads out in a vast plateau, merging on the north in the open plain of Biláspur, while on every other side ranges of hills, branching from the great Vindhyan chain, close it in. To the north-east and south, wild tracts of jungle contrast with the populous villages among which they lie; everywhere else, the plain country has been cleared, except where a strip has been left waste for the sake of the thatching grass it produces, or because the rocky soil is more valuable as jungle than as cultivated land.

Ráipur is drained by two rivers, which subsequently unite, and form the Mahánadi proper. The larger of these, the Seonáth, rises in Chándá, and after its entrance into Ráipur, flows in a north-easterly direction for about 120 miles, till it receives the Hámp from the west; it then turns westward for 40 miles, during part of its course forming the boundary between Ráipur and Biláspur, and finally joins the Mahánadi in the north-east corner of the District. On the right bank, its tributaries are the Karkará, Tendúlá, Kárún, and Khorsí; on the left bank, the Gumariá, Am, Súrí, Gárághát, Ghogwá, and Hámp. Like the Seonáth, most of these streams flow over a rocky or gravelly bottom, and retain their water nearly all the year. The Mahánadi proper, here a comparatively insignificant stream, has its source in the

extreme south-east of the District, and flows due west for about 30 miles. It then turns sharply to the north-east, its bed lying for 20 miles through a narrow valley, in places only 500 yards wide. Emerging into more open country, it rolls on in a northerly or north-easterly direction till it unites with the Seonáth. During its course in Ráipur, the Mahánadi is swelled by the Pairí and Sundar, which meet before their junction with the Mahánadi, and by the Kesho, Korár, and Nainí, which flow from the east through hilly tracts, along narrow but fertile valleys, and fall directly into that river. In this part of the District the river beds are wide wastes of sand, dry for more than half the year, and at no time, except during high flood, containing much water.

Everywhere in Ráipur the country is dotted with tanks. These are generally formed by throwing a dam across a hollow: but in most large villages one or more tanks may be found embanked on all sides, and planted with trees, the work of some public-spirited villager, or perhaps of some enterprising Banjárá who used to pasture his pack-bullocks in the village in the days when the jungle was yet uncut. Such tanks, which depend almost entirely on the rainfall for their supply, give better drinking water than those formed by damming the valleys; but as little care is taken to keep them clear, the water generally becomes a mass of impurity in the hot weather. Wells were unknown until quite recent years; but the regulations granting land rent-free to persons digging them, has led to the construction of wells lined with masonry in many villages. Near the Mahánadi, and to the south of the District, water occurs at from 12 to 24 feet below the surface; but in the east it is not so easily procured.

The highland borders of Ráipur, on the east and south, and to a smaller extent on the west, are mostly occupied by the chiefships attached to the District, which fringe the *khálsa* or portion under British administration. The hills are rarely over 1500 feet in height, except the Gaurágarh plateau, and the range which extends from the south of Seháwá into Bastar and Kánker. The hilly tracts on the outskirts of Ráipur are mainly composed of gneiss and quartzite, while the sandstone rocks are intersected with trap dikes. The soil here is poor, except in the narrow valleys, where the land is almost always in the swampy state suitable for the cultivation of rice. Throughout the plain country the soil is generally fertile. The stratum below the alluvial deposits is invariably a soft sandstone slate, frequently covered with a layer of laterite gravel; and in many places the shale has been converted into hard vitrified sandstone, forming an excellent building material. Below this again lies the blue limestone, which crops out in numerous places on the surface, and is constantly found in the beds of the rivers.

Iron-ore abounds, that found at Dallí in the Lohára estate, and in the hills to the west of Gandái, being reckoned the best. The red ochre of Gandái and Thákurtolá also bears a high repute. Apart from the trees round the tanks, but few are to be seen throughout the greater part of the plain. The teak, which once grew luxuriantly on all the river banks, has nearly disappeared, and scarcely a mango grove embellishes the country. The commonest tree is the *mahuá*, which is always preserved when the others are cleared away. The uplands on the borders, however, are still covered with forests; though few of these, except the great *sál* forest lands of Seháwá and Bindrá Nawágarh, and that along the Kamtára *nálá* in the Deorí and Kauriá *zamíndárís* or estates, yield much valuable timber. The Gandái and Lohára *zamíndárís* also contain large tracts of young teak; and among the hills of the Gaurágarh plateau, as well as on the high range in the south of Seháwá, spread noble forests of *sáj* and *tendú*. Ráipur offers great attractions to the sportsman. In the hot months, tigers and leopards are found near the streams; on the hills, bears abound; and to the east, bison; while in every direction antelope, spotted deer, and other varieties of game are met with.

History. — According to Gond traditions, Ráipur was originally inhabited by a race of giants, endued with supernatural powers; who, however, at length yielded to the marvellous prowess of the Gond heroes. Those critics who think that a poetic legend must always contain a kernel of prose, refer these mythical victories to the conflict of the Gonds with the Bhunjíyás and other Kolarian races, with whom the Gonds came in contact in Chhatísgarh, as elsewhere in Central India. To the east of the Mahánadi, the Bhunjíyás and Binjwárs maintained themselves till a late period, and the ruined forts along the river still testify to the raids of the Kolarians from the Sonákhán Hills.

Our earliest historical knowledge of Ráipur reveals the District as forming part of the dominions under the Haihai-Bansí dynasty of Ratanpur. On the accession of Surdeva, twentieth of his line, about 750 A.D., the Chhatísgarh country was divided; and while Surdeva retained the northern half, his younger brother, Brahmadeva, moved to Ráipur, and governed the southern section. From this time, two separate Rájás ruled in Chhatísgarh; for when, after nine generations, the direct line from Brahmadeva became extinct, a younger scion of the Ratanpur house, Deranáth Singh, the son of Rájá Jagannáth Singh Deva, again proceeded to Ráipur about 1360, and his issue continued in uninterrupted possession until the arrival of the Maráthás. The elder branch of the Haihai-Bansí family, however, always claimed a certain supremacy over the southern kingdom. Probably some time elapsed before the Ráipur Government was firmly established; for an

inscription in a temple at Rájím, dated Samvat 796, or A.D. 750, commemorates the conquests of a chief named Jagat Pál, who seems to have acquired the fort of Drúg by a marriage connection with Prithwí Deva, the successor of Surdeva at Ratanpur.

Apparently the Haihai-Bansí kings made no alteration in the system of society established by the Gonds. The clan, not the village, formed the social unit; and while in Upper India the family developed into the village community, throughout Chhatísgarh the clan settled in a cluster of villages, which were formed into a *táluk*. All the original inhabitants of each *táluk* either were or deemed themselves connected with the chief by ties of blood. Immigration from Hindustán, and the mere lapse of time, however, gradually relaxed the bond of union till nothing was left to combine the people except their common dependence upon a central authority. Thus, with the decay of the ruling race, all national feeling faded away; and the Maráthás met with little or no opposition when they entered the country.

The first Maráthá invasion took place in 1741, when Bháskar Pandit, on his way to attack Bengal, defeated Rájá Raghunáth Singh at Ratanpur; but neither he nor Mohan Singh, who was put in charge of Chhatísgarh by Raghují I. of Nágpur in 1745, at first interfered with Amar Singh, the Rájá of the younger line ruling in Ráipur. Five years later, however, Amar Singh was quietly ousted, receiving for his maintenance the *parganás* of Rájím, Pátan, and Ráipur, for which he paid a yearly tribute of £700. After several changes, in 1822 the present arrangement was made, by which his grandson Raghunáth Singh received Bargáon, with the neighbouring villages of Govindá, Murbená, Nándgáon, and Báleswar, free of revenue. Ráipur was already in a condition of decay when it came under the Maráthás, and the raids of the Binjwárs of Sonákhán continued to desolate the eastern portion of the District. Bimbájí, and on his death, in 1787, his widow Anandí Bái, effected some improvement; but after the time of her successor, the *subahdár* Vitthal Devákar, the government became a mere engine of financial oppression, and the country relapsed into absolute anarchy.

On the deposition of Apá Sáhib in 1818, the Nágpur dominions were taken under British superintendence during the minority of Raghují III.; and by the mild but firm administration of Colonel Agnew, Ráipur rapidly progressed, until Raghují III. assumed the throne in 1830. From that time till 1854, when the Nágpur kingdom lapsed to the British Government, Chhatísgarh was administered by *subahs*, who continued the system organized by Colonel Agnew with such success, that in 1855 the revenue of Ráipur alone nearly equalled the revenue paid by the whole of Chhatísgarh in 1818. Captain Elliot, the officer appointed after the annexation, at first had jurisdiction over all Chhatísgarh, together with Bastar. In 1856 the country was divided into 3

tahsíls, two of which, Dhamtári and Ráipur, lay within the present District, and Drúg was made a *tahsíl* in the following year. In 1861, Biláspur was formed into a separate District, and in 1863 a fourth *tahsíl* of Simgá was added to Ráipur. The District suffered but little during the Mutiny, the only disturbances being those excited by Náráyan Singh, the last of the Binjwár chiefs of Sonákhán. He was hanged in 1858, and his estate confiscated. Since then the raids of the hill tribes into the east of the District have entirely ceased, and the tracts they desolated are fast becoming the most flourishing portions of Ráipur.

Population. — Ráipur is both the largest and the most populous District of the Central Provinces. A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population at 1,322,662 persons. The Census of 1872 disclosed 1,437,255; and the last enumeration in 1881 returned 1,832,237. The above returns include the population of the four Feudatory States attached to the District; but as a separate article is devoted to each of these dependencies (see under CHHUIKHADAN, KANKER, KHAIRAGARH, and NANDGAON), the following examination of the people will be confined to the *khálsa*, or portion of the District under direct British management.

The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 1,093,405 persons, on an area of 11,885 square miles, residing in 4431 villages and inhabiting 241,922 houses. In 1881, the Census, taken over the same area, returned the population at 1,405,171, showing an increase of 311,766, or 28·5 per cent., in nine years. This increase, however, is only apparent, and is the result of more careful enumeration in 1881, as the increase of registered births over deaths was only 6·3 per cent., and immigration is small.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows: —Area of British District, 11,885 square miles; number of towns and villages, 4743; number of houses, 460,306, namely, occupied 446,651, and unoccupied 13,655. Total population, 1,405,171, namely, males 696,242, and females 708,929; proportion of males, 49·5 per cent. Average density of population, 118 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·4; persons per town, 296; occupied houses per square mile, 37·6; inmates per occupied house, 3·15. Classified according to sex and age, there are—under 15 years of age, males 306,854, and females 292,337; total children, 599,191, or 42·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 389,388, and females 416,592; total adults, 805,980, or 57·3 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population consists of —Hindus proper, 856,492, or 60·9 per cent. of the whole population; Satnámís, 223,447, or 15·9 per cent.; Kabírpanthís, 143,178, or 10·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 14,991, or 1·1 per cent.; Christians, 821; Jains, 513; and non-Hindu aborigines, 165,729, or 11·8 per cent.

The total number of aboriginal tribes, however, is returned by the Census at 316,353, namely, Hindus 150,624, and non-Hindus 165,729. Of the aboriginal tribes, the Gonds are the most numerous, being returned (Hindus and non-Hindus) at 261,791. Though the oldest settlers in the country, they have succumbed to the Hindu invaders, and are now rarely found holding villages, except in the jungles. In the open country they are almost entirely Hinduized; and though some of them show energy and industry, yet, generally speaking, they are a down-trodden race, and rarely attain wealth or comfort. In the jungles also, the old religion of the tribe is disappearing, and while all Gonds worship Burhá Deo and Dúlá Deo (the latter being the household god), the Ráipur Gonds know little of the distinctive gods of the Dhur Gonds, to which tribe most of the Chhatísgarh Gonds belong. They are all intensely superstitious, and worship the numerous local deities assiduously; though, except in the jungles, the Baigá, or village priest, is as often a Keut (Kewat), Telí, or Ahír, as a Gond.

The Kawárs or Kanwárs, 19,333 in number, who conquered the country from the aboriginal Bhúiyás, and who supplied the chief counsellors and most trusted followers of the Haihai-Bansí kings, are also returned as aborigines. There is, however, ground for supposing them to be imperfect Rájputs, who settled in early times among the hills of the Vindhyan range, and escaped becoming Hinduized. Their claim to be considered as Rájputs is recognised in one instance, as the first Kanwár chief of Narrá in Ráipur *tahsíl* received his estate as a dowry on his marriage with the daughter of the Rájput chief of Khariár. Though the warlike traditions of the race are preserved in their worship of Jhágrá Khand under the form of a sword, the Kanwárs of the present day are the most peaceable and quiet of men, and once fairly settled in a cultivated country, are industrious and good cultivators. In the jungles they have conformed generally to the customs of their neighbours, and worship Burhá Deo and Dúlá Deo, like the Gonds. The richer among them, however, all wish to be considered as good Hindus. The Kanwárs are chiefly found in the north-east of the District; but a large colony of them in Dhamtári *tahsíl*, in the south, still hold lands granted to their ancestors by the Haihai-Bansí kings. They are most numerous, however, in the Feudatory States.

The other aboriginal tribes include—Binjwárs, 7316 in number, found chiefly in the north-east of the District, who occasionally cultivate. The allied tribes of Bhunjiyas and Bhumiás, 4721 in number, inhabit the east of the District, particularly the Khariár and Bindrá Nawágarh *zamíndárís*, where they hold a good many fairly cultivated villages. The Saonrás, a branch of the Savar tribe, 3849 in number, are only found in Khálarí in the east of the Ráipur *tahsíl*, and are the most industrious of the jungle tribes. The Kandhs, 1325 in number, and Kamárs, 3641, utterly

refuse to cultivate, and generally live in the most remote jungles, supporting themselves on jungle fruits and small game. The only other aboriginal tribe that need be mentioned is the Khárwár, 13,481 in number, a branch of the Kols, which has now become almost completely Hinduized.

Among the orthodox Hindu population, the Bráhmans number 20,261. The majority of them are residents of long standing, and claim to be the descendants of Kanauj Bráhmans imported by Kalyán Sahí, the great Haihai-Bansí Rájá, in the 16th century. They are looked down upon and regarded as impure by their brethren who have settled in the District in more recent times; but they make good landlords, and are not unpopular with their cultivators. The Maráthá Bráhmans are of recent origin, and almost all the villages held by them have been acquired by the ousting of older proprietors. The Rájputs, 9393 in number, for the most part belong to families who have been settled here for many generations. They are generally descendants of immigrants from the north; though in the Dhamtárí *tahsíl* there are a few Rájputs who have migrated from the Madras State of Jaipur, and it is only this latter class who will hold the plough. The other respectable castes are —Baniyás, or traders, who often hold land, 3634 in number; Gosains, also a landholding class, 3046; Bháts, or genealogists, 2711; and Káyasths, writers, Government officials, and landholders, 1044.

The lower or Súdra castes of Hindus include—Chamár, the most numerous caste in the District, returned at 248,429. Among the Chamárs are included large numbers of the Satnámí sect, described below. Next to Chamárs comes the Telí caste, 203,503; followed by the Ahír caste, 141,983; Kurmí, 58,293; Keut or Kewat, 50,923; Gándá, 35,728; Marár, 35,096; Panká, 31,659; Mehrá, 26,796; Kallár, 20,307; Dhobí, 19,063; Koshtí, 17,433; Dhimár, 17,113; Lohár, 14,763; Nái, 13,121; Gadariá, 9222; Banjárá, 8518; Kumbhár, 7561; Lodhí, 7079; Bairagi, 6507; Sonár, 5718; Dom, 4763; Ghásiá, 4705; Málí, 3575; and Maráthá, 2967.

The Satnámís, 223,447, and the Kabírpanthís, 143,178, are Hindus who theoretically recognise no distinction of caste. The Satnámís, who principally belong to the Chamár caste, call themselves Rái Dásís, from Rám Dás, a Chamár reformer and disciple of Rámanand in the 15th century; the modern Satnámí creed is a revival of the doctrines of Rám Dás, preached by Ghásí Dás in the early part of the present century. The creed found ready acceptance among the low-caste Chamárs, and the majority of that caste are now included in the sect, although other castes are also admitted. The Kabírpanthís, or followers of Kabír, a religious reformer and also a disciple of Rámanand, are very similar to the Satnámís, but are principally found among the Pankás, Gándás, and Telís. Though theoretically the Kabírpanthís

profess an equality of caste, it would now be difficult for a Chamár to obtain admission into the brotherhood.

Town and Rural Population.—Ráipur District contains only two towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, RAIPUR, population (1881) 24,948; and DHAMTARI, 6647. Total urban population, 31,595, or 2·3 per cent. of the population of the District. The only regular municipality is that of Ráipur town, with an income in 1882-83 of £4862, of which £3642 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 10¾d. per head. Of the 4743 towns and villages in the District, 2136 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1938 from two to five hundred; 587 from five hundred to a thousand; 72 from one to two thousand; 5 from two to three thousand; 3 from three to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupations, the Census Report groups the male population under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional, military, and official class, 11,162; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 4616; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6004; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 356,841; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including all artisans, 53,120; and (6) unspecified and unproductive, comprising general labourers and male children, 264,499.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 11,885 square miles, only 3636 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 4827 square miles are returned as cultivable, and 3422 square miles as uncultivable waste; 10,405 acres are irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The area assessed for Government revenue is 10,405 square miles, of which 3577 square miles are cultivated, 4290 square miles cultivable, and 2538 square miles uncultivable waste. Rice forms the staple crop of the District, and appears to have once been the only produce of Chhatísgarh. Even now the rice crop alone is under the special protection of Thákur Deo, the great local god, and his priest the *báiga;* while the questions as to the time of sowing the modern wheat crop, the colour of the bullocks to be yoked to the plough, and the direction in which the sower is to proceed, are referred to the Bráhman *purohit.* In 1883, rice occupied 1,372,618 acres. The other *kharíf* crops are cotton, which was grown on 38,163 acres, *arhar*, *tíl*, and *kodo*. The last, a hardy and prolific pulse, supplies the chief food of the poorer classes, who find a pound of *kodo* as satisfying as twice the quantity of rice. For all these crops the land is ploughed twice before sowing, and the seed is sown broadcast. Of the *rabí* harvest, the principal grain is wheat, covering 215,544 acres in 1883-84. It is sown on the best lands after repeated ploughings, while for gram, castor-oil, and the other *rabí* crops the land is generally ploughed only once or twice. Sugar-cane was grown on 3498 acres, and, though requiring much labour, amply repays the cultivator;

6570 acres were devoted to tobacco. Rotation of crops is not practised; and the agriculture of the District is for the most part slovenly.

The average out-turn per acre for different crops was returned as follows in 1883–84: — Rice, 271 lbs.; wheat, 404 lbs.; inferior grain, 600 lbs.; oil-seeds, 200 lbs.; sugar (*gúr*), 1448 lbs.; tobacco, 124 lbs. Of the adult male and female agricultural population in 1881, 13,375 were returned as landed proprietors; 450,474 as tenant cultivators, of whom 289,293 were tenants-at-will; 55,637 were tenants at fixed rates or with a right of occupancy, 28,505 assistants in home cultivation, and 199,261 were agricultural labourers. Estate agents, farm bailiffs, shepherds, herdsmen, etc., bring up the total agricultural population of Ráipur District to 666,394, or 47·42 per cent. of the District population; average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 8 acres per head. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land in 1883–84 are returned as follows:—Land suited for rice or oil-seeds, 1s.; for wheat, 1s. 6d.; for inferior grains, 1s. 4½d.; for cotton, 1s. 3d.; for tobacco or sugar-cane, 3s. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £58,440, or an average of 6⅛d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £126,809, or an average of 1s. 1⅛d. per cultivated acre. The agricultural stock consists of—cows and bullocks, 521,826; horses, 844; ponies, 11,285; donkeys, 527; sheep and goats, 140,689; pigs, 6724; carts, 59,860; and plough, 175,526. A skilled labourer receives 1s. per diem; an unskilled labourer, 3d. to 4d. The ordinary price of produce per cwt. was—rice and linseed, 4s.; wheat, 3s. 5d.; cotton (cleaned), £2, 11s. 10d.; raw sugar (*gúr*), 11s. 4d.; refined sugar, £2, 4s. 9d.

Natural Calamities.—So land-locked a region as Ráipur incurs considerable risk of famine, but the hills which shut in the District also ensure in most years an adequate rainfall. In 1835, and again in 1844, however, terrible famines desolated the country; and in 1869, Ráipur suffered severely both from famine and from the cholera epidemic which accompanied it.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief trading towns in the District are Ráipur, Balodá, Simgá, and Rání Taláo, which have a considerable traffic in grain, lac, and cotton; and Dhamtári and Rájím, where lac and other jungle produce are collected for export. Dongargarh in Khairágarh, and Nandgáon in Nandgáon State—although not in British territory, yet within the geographical limits of the District—have of late years risen into considerable importance as emporia of the grain trade; and their position on the new Nágpur-Chhatísgarh railway will probably, when the line is fully opened out, in a few years raise them into the position of the centres of the Ráipur grain trade. The commerce of Ráipur is of quite recent creation. Under the Maráthás,

heavy transit duties prevented its development, and cowries formed the only circulating medium. Metals constitute the chief import. English piece-goods had not till recently penetrated beyond the wealthier classes; the bulk of the people taking the produce of their patch of cotton to the native weavers, who are found in most villages, to be converted into clothing for themselves and their families. English piece-goods, and the coarser fabrics from the Nágpur mill, have now, to a considerable extent, supplanted the indigenous hand-looms. The Maráthá women wear *saris* woven by local weavers; but even in this case, the thread is generally imported from Nágpur or Bombay. The local yield of cotton now mostly finds its way to Cuttack and Sambalpur. The principal export is grain; but cotton, sugar, and coarse cloth are also exported. There were, in 1883, only 170 miles of road, entirely of the second class, in Ráipur. The Nágpur-Chhatísgarh railway has been opened out as far as Nandgáon, a length of 149 miles from Nágpur town, and will afterwards be extended to Bilúspur, and ultimately to the East Indian railway system at Etáwah. The most important road traffic with Nágpur follows two principal routes, one by the Great Eastern Road, and the other by a line passing through Khairágarh, and thence by Kamtha to Nágpur. The route to the eastern coast runs through the Fingeswar and Bindrá Nawágarh chiefships, whence it turns due south down the valley of Khariár, subsequently meeting another road running south from Seháwá, along which a good deal of traffic passes. Two roads of less importance lead towards Jabalpur (Jubbulpur), and other tracks pass by Bálod to Wairágarh, and by Dhamtári and Kánker to Bastar and the Godávari river. During the rains, the Mahánadi affords means of communication for 132 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Ráipur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1883–84, £89,829, of which the land yielded £64,870. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £15,276. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 14; magistrates, 10; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 69 miles; average distance, 14 miles. Number of regular police, 512 men, costing £7313, being 1 policeman to about every 22 square miles and to every 2744 inhabitants. The daily average number of prisoners in 1883, in the Ráipur jail, which is one of the three central prisons of the Central Provinces, was 772, of whom 44 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £2904; the average net cost, after allowing for profits from prison labour, being £2, 12s. 6d. per prisoner. The number of Government or aided schools under inspection in the District in 1883–84 was 216, attended by 14,825 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is generally good, being free from

sudden or violent changes. Average temperature in the shade during 1883 at the civil station:—May, highest reading 114·6° F., lowest 74·6°; July, highest 92·6°, lowest 69·6°; December, highest 78·6°, lowest 42·6° F. In 1883 the rainfall was 47·8 inches; the average fall is slightly under 50 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are fevers and small-pox; cholera, for which Ráipur formerly bore an ill name, is now a less frequent visitant. Stone is also a common complaint. In 1883, 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to a total of 46,897 patients. Vital statistics showed in the same year a death-rate of 29·8 per thousand, as against a mean of 36 per thousand for the previous five years. [For further information regarding Ráipur, see the *Gazetteer of the Central Provinces*, by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant, K.C.S.I., pp. 403–424 (Nágpur, 1870). Also the *Settlement Report of Ráipur District*, by Mr. J. F. K. Hewitt, C.S. (1869); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces from 1880 to 1884.]

Ráipur.—Central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area, 5791 square miles, with 1958 towns and villages, and 141,332 houses. Population (1881) 466,091, namely, males 233,793, and females 232,298; average density of population, 80·5 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 213,900, with an average of 11 acres of cultivated and cultivable land to each. Of a total area of 5791 square miles, 469 square miles are held entirely revenue free, while 3961 square miles are made up of seven *zamíndárís* or petty chiefships, which pay a total *peshkash* or permanent tribute of £282. The Government lands of the *tahsíl* comprise an area of only 1361 square miles, of which 759 square miles are cultivated, 543 square miles cultivable, and 59 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £14,638, or an average of 7¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £32,178, or an average of 1s. 3¼d. per cultivated acre. In 1884 the Sub-division contained (including District head-quarters) 7 civil and 10 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 87 officers and men.

Ráipur.—Chief town of Ráipur District, and head-quarters of the Chhatísgarh Division of the Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 15′ N., and long. 81° 41′ E., on a plateau 950 feet above sea-level, about 180 miles east of Nágpur, on the road from Nágpur to Calcutta *viâ* Sambalpur and Midnapur. Ráipur first appears in history when Bráhma Deva established his court here in 750 A.D. The site of the old town lay more to the south and west than at present, extending to the river bank at Mahádeo Ghát. The modern town dates from 1830, when Colonel Agnew laid out the main street, which is nearly 2 miles long, and contains a good *bázár* and many fine houses, some of them

with elaborately carved pillars and balconies. Population (1872) 19,116; (1881) 24,948, namely, males 12,447, and females 12,501. Hindus number 19,181; Satnámis, 278; Kabírpanthís, 94; Jains, 307; Muhammadans, 4406; Christians, 532; and non-Hindu aborigines, 150. The municipal income of the town in 1882-83 amounted to £4284, of which £3642 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 10¾d. per head.

Tanks and groves of trees surround the town. The Búrhá tank, to the east of the fort, and, like it, over 400 years old, covered nearly a square mile, but has been reduced in extent by recent improvements. On its eastern side, public gardens have been laid out. The Mahárájí tank, south of the fort, takes its name from Maháráj Dání, a revenue-farmer under the Maráthás a century ago, who constructed an embankment half a mile from the fort, and converted a pestilential swamp into a beautiful tank, covering about half a square mile. Close to the embankment stands a temple to Rámchandra, built and endowed in 1775 by Bimbájí Bhonsla, Rájá of Ráipur. The Koko tank, constructed by Kodand Singh, Kamávisdár of Ráipur, about fifty years ago, has stone retaining walls on three sides, with steps down to the water. Into this tank are thrown the images of Ganpati at the close of the festival of *Ganesh Chaturkí*. The Ambá tank, constructed by a Telí merchant 200 years ago, was repaired about 1850, and faced with massive stone terraces, having steps to the water on three sides, at the cost of Sobhárám Mahájan of Ráipur. This tank lies a quarter of a mile to the north of the town, and supplies a large quarter with excellent drinking water. A mile to the west of the city is the Rájá tank, constructed two centuries ago, in the time of Rájá Bariár Singh, with one side faced with stone. The Telí Bándh, constructed fifty years ago by Dinanáth, father of Sobhárám Mahájan, has also one side faced with stone; though small, it holds deep water. Lastly, the Kankálí tank, in the middle of the town, was constructed of stone throughout, about two centuries ago, by Kirpál Gir Mahant, who also built a small temple to Mahádeo in the centre. Its water has a fetid smell, but is used by the people for washing purposes.

The Ráipur fort was founded by Rájá Bhuvaneswar Singh in 1460; and before recent improvements in artillery, it must have been a place of immense strength. Its outer walls, nearly a mile in circumference, consisted of five bastions, with connecting curtains, pierced by three large gates and one postern. It was protected on the east by the Búrhá tank, and on the south and west by the Mahárájí tank. Immense masses of fine limestone and granite were used in constructing the walls, though no quarries exist in the neighbourhood. The main gate, on the north side, was entire when the British took possession in 1818; and lately, in knocking down one of the bastions, the workmen came

on some old tombs 20 feet below the surface, carefully protected by stone walls, but without any inscription.

Ráipur carries on a large and increasing trade in grain, lac, cotton, and other produce. It contains, besides the ordinary District offices, the court, civil and criminal, of a Divisional Commissioner. It is also the head-quarters of a circle of education, and possesses a thriving Anglo-vernacular school, and a normal school. It has a main and branch dispensary, a post-office, and a handsome police station; and since 1863, a church, a travellers' bungalow, a *sarái* for native travellers, and a central jail have been erected. The garrison consists of a regiment of Native infantry, under the Brigadier-General commanding the Kámthí (Kamptee) force.

Ráipur (also called *Amethi*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sultánpur District, Oudh; bounded north by Muzaffarkhána *tahsíl*, east by Sultánpur, south by Partábgarh, and west by Mahárájganj. Area, 366 square miles, of which 163 are cultivated. Population (1881) 198,734; namely, males 96,861, and females 101,873. Hindus number 188,590; Muhammadans, 10,143; and Christian, 1. Average density of population, 543 persons per square mile; number of villages (*mauzás*), 452, of which 325 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. This *tahsíl* comprises the two *parganás* of Amethi and Tappa Asl. Land revenue, £24,338. In 1883 it contained 1 criminal court; two police stations (*thánás*); a regular police force of 39 men; and a village watch or rural police of 637 *chaukídárs*.

Ráirakhol (*Rehrakol*).—Petty Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 55′ and 21° 20′ N. lat., and between 84° and 84° 48′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Bámra, on the east by Athmallik and Angúl, on the west by Sambalpur District, and on the south by Sonpur. Population (1881) 17,750 (of whom 12,690 were Hindus), residing in 199 villages or townships, and 3349 houses, on an area of 833 square miles, 150 of which are cultivated, while of the portion lying waste 275 are returned as cultivable. The principal rivers, the Chanpálí and Tíkkirá, are insignificant streams. The soil is light and sandy. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. Ráirakhol contains valuable *sál* forests, besides other useful trees; but for want of means of transport, the timber can find no market. The forests yield *sál* resin and beeswax, and lac is found in considerable quantities. Iron-ore of excellent quality abounds, and smelting is carried on in eight or ten villages. Traders from Cuttack come up periodically and carry off the iron on pack-bullocks. The smelters pay the Rájá but a trifling tax for the right to work up the ore; but as most of them are deeply indebted to the traders for advances, the profit goes almost entirely into the pockets of the traders. The main road from Sambalpur to Cuttack *viá*

Angúl passes through the centre of the State; to the northward, also, another road leads to Cuttack, which has now fallen into disuse. Ráirakhol was formerly subordinate to Bámrá, but was erected into an independent State, forming one of the Garhját cluster, by the Patná Rájás about a century ago. The chief is a Janamuni Rájput. His supposed gross revenue amounts to £2200, and he pays a tribute of £58. The revenue has of late fallen off, through over-assessment and other mismanagement. Education is utterly neglected. In 1872 no child was returned as under instruction; and only 18 persons between twelve and twenty years of age, and 10 above twenty, were said to be able to read and write. The climate, like that of Sambalpur, is unhealthy. Fever is the prevailing disease, especially from September to November; and cholera is frequently epidemic.

Ráiri (*Redi*, or more properly *Yashwantgarh*).—Fort in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 45′ N., and long. 73° 44′ E., on a rocky height at the mouth of a small navigable river, 225 miles south of Bombay. Built (according to Grant-Duff) in 1662 by Sivají; subsequently it came into the possession of the rulers of Sáwantwári, and, on becoming a stronghold of piracy, was in 1765 taken by a British force, but restored the following year. By a treaty made in 1812, Ráiri reverted in 1819 to the British, whose rights were confirmed in 1820. The fort stands on a hill, which, with a portion of the surrounding plain, is enclosed by an irregular outer wall. The outer wall is armed with round towers, the strongest of them about 20 feet high, and joined by a loop-holed curtain, about 17 feet high. Through the gate of the outer wall a paved road, passing up the central citadel hill, is crossed by a wall that runs from the citadel to the outer fortifications. Through a gate in this wall is a square court, and up a flight of steps and through a third gate is the citadel. From their outer foundations the walls of the citadel stand about 25 feet high; and close under them, circling all except the south-west corner of the wall, is a dry ditch or trench 24 feet wide, and about 13 feet deep, cut in the solid rock, its side opposite the wall being a sheer perpendicular. In the south-east corner, where there is no moat, the wall is built rather to protect the besieged from distant artillery than to carry guns. The walls of the citadel are about 12 feet thick at the top, with a semi-circular tower at about every 60 yards, intended for guns. The circumference of the citadel is about one-third of a mile. In the vicinity of the fort, on Hasta Dongar Hill, are caves hollowed in the face of the rock. The local story is that the caves are sacred, and were cut a thousand years ago when Redi was called Pátan or Patná. Of the ruins of old Redi, lying west and south of the outer wall of the fort, very little masonry is left. But the ground has been considerably dug, as if for building stone.

Rai Sánkli.—Petty State in the Jháláwár *pranth* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages. The revenue is estimated at £900; and tribute is paid of £55, 12s. to the British Government, and £38 to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Area, 6 square miles. Population (1881) 721.

Raisín.—Fort in the Native State of Bhopál, Central India; situated in lat. 23° 20′ N., and long. 77° 46′ 10″ E., at the eastern extremity of a sandstone hill, with scarped sides, 500 feet above the plain, and about 1950 feet above the sea; it is 10 miles from the famous Sanchi topes, and on the road from Hoshangábád to Ságar (Saugor), 50 miles north of the former and 87 south-west of the latter. Thornton states that it was formerly a fort of great importance. In 1543 it was besieged by Sher Sháh, and at length capitulated on condition of the garrison being allowed to march out unmolested. Towards the middle of the 18th century, Raisín was seized by the Maráthás, from whom it was wrested, in 1748, by the Nawáb of Bhopál, between whom and the British Government a treaty was made here in 1818.

Rájáborárí.—State forest in the south of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; covering about 160 square miles, and extending from Sáulígarh on the east to Kálíbhít and Makrái on the west. It has been much exhausted by indiscriminate felling, and will require a long rest.

Rájágriha.—A range of rocky hills in Patná District, Bengal, extending from lat. 24° 58′ 30″ to 25° 1′ 30″ N., and from long. 85° 25′ to 85° 33′ 30″ E., consisting mainly of two parallel ridges enclosing a narrow valley, which is intersected by numerous ravines and passes. Adjacent to the two ridges are many detached peaks and knolls. In geological formation, the Rájágriha Hills are igneous, being composed almost entirely of quartz and siliceous hornstone. They seldom exceed a thousand feet in height, and are for the most part covered with dense low jungle. Hot springs are found near the site of the ancient city of Kusanagarapura, and are yearly visited by thousands of pilgrims, Hindus, Jains, and even Muhammadans. Every third year, a large fair is held on the site of these springs. The water has a sulphurous taste.

Rájágriha (or *Rájgir*).—Ruins in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 1′ 45″ N., long. 85° 28′ E. Identified by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton with Rájágriha, the residence of Buddha and capital of the ancient Magadha; and by General Cunningham with Kusá-nagára-pura ('the town of the *kúsá* grass'), visited by Hiuen Tsiang, and called by him *Kiu-she-kie-lo-pu-lo.* Rájágriha, which means 'the royal residence,' was also known as Giribrájá, 'the hill surrounded;' and under this name the capital of Jarásindhu, King of Magadha, is mentioned both in the *Rámáyana* and the *Mahábhárata.* It is also described by Fa-Hian and Hiuen

Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrims; the latter gives an account of the hot springs found at this place. The five hills surrounding the city, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* and in the Pálí annals, have been examined by General Cunningham. The first, Baibhár, is undoubtedly the Webhars Mountain of the Pálí annals, on the side of which was the famous Sattapanni Cave, where the first Buddhist synod was held in 543 B.C. The second hill, Ratnágiri, is the one called by Fa-Hian 'The Fig-tree Cave,' where Buddha meditated after his meals, identical with the Rishigiri of the *Mahábhárata*, and the Pandao of the Pálí annals. A paved zigzag road leads to a small temple on the summit of this mountain, which is still used by Jains. The third hill, Bipula, is clearly the Wepullo of the Pálí annals, and the Chait-yaka of the *Mahábhárata*. The other two hills have Jain temples.

Traces of the outer wall around the ancient town of Rájágriha may still be seen, about 4⅝ miles in circumference. The new Rájgir is about two-thirds of a mile north of the old town. According to Buddhist annals, it was built by Srenika or Bimbisára, the father of Ajáta Satru, the contemporary of Buddha, and therefore not later than 560 B.C. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton stated that the town stood upon the north-west corner of a fort, which is an irregular pentagon in form, and apparently of great antiquity. At the south-west extremity are traces of a more modern fort, with stone walls, which might have been a kind of citadel. It occupies a space of about 600 yards. The eastern and northern faces had no ditch, but there was a strong stone wall about 18 feet thick, with circular projections at intervals. The eastern approach to Rájágriha was protected by a stone wall 20 feet in width, and running zigzag up the southern slopes of the hills. A watch-tower on the extreme eastern point of the range corresponded with a similar tower immediately over the city. One tower still exists, and also the foundations of the second tower. South of the ancient city of Rájágriha are found inscriptions on huge slabs of stone, which form a natural pavement. So far as is known, the characters have never been deciphered.

Rájá Jang.—Town in Kasúr *tahsíl*, Lahore District, Punjab; situated three miles from Ráiwind on the branch road from that place to Gandá Singhwála. Population (1881) 5187, namely, Muhammadans, 3094; Sikhs, 1560; and Hindus, 533. Number of houses, 798. The place is an unpretentious collection of native houses, chiefly of unburnt bricks, with no paved streets or *bázárs*. Primary vernacular school. The main branch of the Lower Bári Doáb Canal passes close to the town.

Rajahmundry.—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* RAJAMAHENDRI.

Rájákularáman.—Town in Srívillipatúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District,

Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 23′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 40′ 30″ E., on the Tinnevelli road. Population (1881) 3408, mostly engaged in agriculture; number of houses, 1109.

Rájámahendri (*Rájámandri*).—*Táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 481 square miles. Population (1881) 131,196, namely, 66,023 males and 65,173 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 130 villages, and occupying 23,365 houses. Hindus number 126,518; Muhammadans, 3984; Christians, 653; and 'others,' 41. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 304 men. Land revenue, £15,361. Rájámahendri *táluk* is partly hilly and partly flat. In some places it is very rocky. The special industry of the *táluk* is the manufacture of cotton carpets. A considerable trade is also carried on in tobacco and in dry grains.

Rájámahendri (*Rájámahendravaram*, *Rajahmandri*).—Town in Rájámahendri *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 17° N., and long. 81° 48′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Godávari, 30 miles from the sea and 365 miles north-east of Madras. Population (1871) 19,682, inhabiting 3486 houses; (1881) 24,555, namely, 12,290 males and 12,265 females, inhabiting 3624 houses. Hindus number 22,480; Muhammadans, 1785; Christians, 285; and 'others,' 5. The town gave its name to the old District of Rájámahendri, now incorporated with Godávari, and is at present the residence of a Sub-Collector, with the courts of a District Judge, District *munsif*, and Magistrate. Contains post and telegraph office, 2 churches, civil dispensary, public garden, museum, provincial college, and several schools. There are 2 jails, in the largest of which, the central prison, are 955 convicts. Rájámahendri is a fairly built town (the suburb of Innespet being excellently laid out), connected by road or canal with every other place of importance in the District. Municipal income (1883–84), £1718; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. per head.

The court-house and judge's residence stand on an elevation overlooking the river, which is here 3 miles wide. Portions of the old ramparts still exist. The Europeans reside on the north and north-east of the town. There is a Protestant mission connected with the American Evangelical Lutheran Church, which has 400 Christian converts, and costs annually about £600. The Government school was established in 1854, and was one of the four Provincial schools sanctioned by the Government of India for the Presidency of Madras.

Tradition divides the merit of founding the city between the Orissa and the Chálukya princes; and General Cunningham believes it to have been the capital of Kalinga at the time of Hiuen Tsiang's visit. This Fergusson disputes, and with apparent reason; but there is little doubt that the city of the Vengi kings was identical with the site of the

present town, and that this also was the seat of the Orissa power in the south. Another authority, however, asserts that the site of Vengi exists five miles from Ellore, and is now known as Pedda Vengi or Great Vengi.

In 1471, Rájámahendri was taken by the Muhammadans. In 1512, Krishna Ráya recaptured the city, and restored it to Orissa. For over sixty years, Hindu rule continued; and Rájámahendri withstood two protracted sieges, till in 1571-72 it yielded to the Musalmáns of the Deccan, under Rafat Khán. For the next century and a half, Rájámahendri was the scene of perpetual fighting, and at last fell to Golconda, and became one of the 4 Nawábships of that Government. It was granted to the French in 1753, and was Bussy's head-quarters from 1754 to 1757. Hither, retreating before Forde, came the remains of Conflans' army after the battle of Condore (1758), only to be driven out by the British sepoys. Shortly afterwards, Forde proceeded against Masulipatam; and during his absence, the French recaptured Rájámahendri, but finding nothing of value (the treasure had been sent to a Dutch settlement), evacuated it almost immediately.

Rájanpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab; consisting of a strip of land stretching from the Suláiman mountains to the river Indus. Area, 1615 square miles; towns and villages, 149; houses, 13,708; number of families, 1703. Population (1881) 82,675, namely, males 46,758, and females 35,917; average density of population, 512 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 71,432; Hindus, 10,678; Sikhs, 552; and Christians, 12. Of the 149 towns and villages, 100 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 27 from five hundred to a thousand; 17 from one to three thousand; and 5 upwards of three thousand inhabitants. The principal crops are wheat, *joár*, rice, and barley. Land revenue, £6016. The administrative staff of the *tahsíl* consists of an Assistant Commissioner, *tahsíldár*, and 3 honorary magistrates, presiding over 5 civil and 5 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 84 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 82.

Rájanpur.—Town and municipality in Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the Rájanpur *tahsíl.* Situated in lat. 29° 6′ 20″ N., long. 70° 21′ 54″ E., at a distance of 8 or 9 miles from the right bank of the Indus, on the high road which runs from Edwardesábád and Dera Ismáil Khán, through Dera Ghází Khán on to Jacobábád. Founded in 1732-33 by Makhdúm Shaikh Rájhan, who ousted the original Náhir possessors, and made himself master of their estates. Population (1881) 4932, namely, Muhammadans, 3013; Hindus, 1667; Sikhs, 239; and 'others,' 13. Number of houses, 479. Municipal income (1883-84), £333, or an average of 1s. 4d. per head of

population. Rájanpur was a small unimportant village until 1862, when the town of Mithankot was washed away by the Indus, and the head-quarters of the Assistant Commissioner were transferred from Mithankot to Rájanpur. The latter town has also attracted a considerable amount of the export grain trade formerly monopolized by Mithankot. The Assistant Commissioner's court, Sub-divisional courts and offices are all situated north of the town, which contains also a post-office, telegraph office, *dák* bungalow, middle school, and public garden. The cantonments, with accommodation for a regiment of cavalry and two companies of infantry belonging to the Punjab Frontier force, lie about half a mile north-east of the town. Considerable exports of grain and cotton to Sakkar, and of opium and indigo to Múltán and Amritsar.

Rájápaláiyám.—Town in Srívillipatúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 12,021, namely, 5914 males and 6107 females, inhabiting 2688 houses. Hindus number 11,913; Muhammadans, 75; and Christians, 33. Police station; post-office.

Rájápur.—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Ratnágiri and Sangameswar Sub-divisions; on the east by Kolhápur; on the south by the Vijaidrug creek; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. Area, 512 square miles, containing 1 town and 173 villages. Population (1881) 127,999, namely, 60,773 males and 67,226 females, occupying 16,570 houses. Hindus number 117,705; Muhammadans, 10,080; and 'others,' 214.

The coast-line of the Sub-division stretches from the Vijaidrug creek to the Machkandi river, a distance of 20 miles. Soil poor, except in the valleys. No forest. The principal passes across the Sahyádri range are the Anaskuda and Kájirda. Chief port of the Sub-division, Jaitápur. Average rainfall, 113 inches. The Vijaidrug creek has no bar, and is navigable throughout its course in Rájápur. Water-supply good for 12 miles inland.

In 1877–78, the area under actual cultivation was 40,445 acres—grain crops occupied 37,134 acres, of which 14,744 were under rice; pulses, 1057 acres; oil-seeds, 870 acres; fibres, 767 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 617 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; and regular police, 73 men.

Rájápur.—Chief town of the Rájápur Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 39′ 10″ N., and long. 73° 33′ 20 E., at the head of a tidal creek, 30 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town, and about 15 miles from the sea. Population (1881) 7448, namely, Hindus, 4742; Muhammadans, 2685; Jains, 15; and Christians, 6. Rájápur is the oldest-looking and best preserved town in the Konkan; its streets are steep and narrow, and the markets paved and roofed. The old English factory, a massive stone building with

an enclosure leading to the creek, now used as a Government office, gives the town a special interest. It is also peculiar as the single Ratnágiri port to which Arab boats still trade direct. Rájápur is not now the port it once was, and vessels of any size cannot ply within 3 miles of the old stone quay. Jaitápur, situated 11 miles lower down, is the outlet for the sea traffic from Rájápur, and the place of call for coasting steamers. Municipality established in 1876; income in 1883-84, £924; incidence of taxation, 2s. 1¾d. per head. The water-supply of the town is from a lake, upwards of half a mile long, and with an average breadth of 250 feet, containing about 60,000,000 gallons of water, which has been formed by damming the Kodávli river at a point 3 miles above the town. The demand for Rájápur being only 100,000 gallons a day, the balance is applied to irrigation. Sub-judge's court; telegraph and post offices; school with 197 pupils in 1883-84.

At the time of the first Muhammadan conquest (1312), Rájápur was the chief town of a District. In 1660-61, and again in 1670, Sivají plundered the town, sacking the English factory. In 1713, Rájápur was handed over to Angria. In 1756 it was taken by the Peshwá from Angria; and in 1818 it came into British possession, together with the rest of the Peshwá's dominions.

Rájápur (or *Májhgáon*).—Commercial town in Mau *tahsíl*, Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 25° 24′ N., and long. 81° 12′ E., on the bank of the Jumna, 18 miles north-east of Kárwí town. Population (1881) 7329, namely, Hindus, 6946; Muhammadans, 377; and Jains, 6. The town is not a municipality, but for police and conservancy purposes a small house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856. Rájápur is the principal mart for all the produce of the District, especially cotton, which is conveyed by boat to Allahábád, and so up the Ganges to Cawnpur. Allahábád firms have agencies for the purchase of produce. The trade of the town, though still large, is now declining, as the railway has superseded the river for purposes of transport, and new trading sites are set up along the line. Many Rájápur merchants have within a few years removed their business to Satná in Rewá State, which is attracting the inland traffic to a great extent. The principal trade at Rájápur is the export of country produce, but a brisk local trade in miscellaneous commodities is carried on in the *bázár*. Large cloth merchants import cloth from Allahábád, and sell it at Rájápur; and all the local *bázárs* in the neighbourhood, as far as Sítápur and Kárwí, are supplied from this source.

Rájápur was founded in the reign of Akbar by Tulsi Dás, a devotee from Soron, who erected a temple, and attracted many followers. He established several peculiar restrictions, still scrupulously observed

by the inhabitants; amongst others, that no houses (except shrines) should be built of stone, even the wealthiest merchants still living in mud houses. Several handsome temples. Four annual fairs. Police station. Ferry, let at an annual rental of £350.

Rájá Sansí.—Town in Ajnála *tahsíl*, Amritsar (Umritsir) District, Punjab; situated on the Siálkot road, 7 miles north-west of Amritsar city. Founded in 1570 by Rájá Sansí Ját, from whom it derives its name. His brother, Kirtu, was common ancestor of Ranjít Singh and of the Sindhanwália family. The latter still reside in the town, which owes its importance to their presence. They rose to great distinction under the Sikh Government, and still own 36 villages in *jágír*. Sardár Bakshish Singh, the present head of the family, has a handsome mansion in the town, finely decorated; he exercises the powers of a Deputy Commissioner within his *jágír*. Population (1868) 3922. Not separately returned in the Census Report for 1881. Post-office. Anglo-vernacular school.

Rájaulí.—Town and municipality in Nawádá Sub-division, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 39′ N., long. 85° 32′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 4812; municipal revenue (1883-84), £44; incidence of taxation, 2¼d. per head; police force, 14 men. Manufacture of *ghí* for export to Calcutta; jungle products, from the adjacent hills, and talc are brought here for distribution among the neighbouring Districts. A metalled road connects Rájaulí with the towns of Nawádá and Behar.

Rájgarh.—Native State in Málwá, under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency of Central India. The District known as OMATWARA was conquered during the decline of the Mughal power by the Omat Rájputs. In 1448, the chief of Omatwára received the title of Ráwat, which is still borne by the chief of Rájgarh. The family trace back their descent to Rájá Bhoj, and through him to Vikramáditya. About 1681 A.D., the chief's son, who was also the *díwán* or minister, compelled his father to divide the territory. The portion assigned to the *díwán* was called NARSINGHGARH, while that retained by the chief or Ráwat was known as Rájgarh. Eventually Narsinghgarh became tributary to Holkar, and Rájgarh to Sindhia. The area of Rájgarh (including Sutalia) is 655 square miles. Population (1881) 117,533, namely, 56,977 males and 60,556 females, dwelling in 638 villages. Hindus number 104,166; Muhammadans, 5830; Jains, 352; Christians, 6; Sikhs, 4; and aboriginal tribes, 7175. The aborigines include Bhíls, 3568; Minás, 3209; and Moghiás, 398. The revenue is returned at £50,000, of which £8517, 4s. is paid to Sindhia as tribute for the District of Tallian; and about £100 to Jháláwár for Kalipit *pargana*. The prinicipal products of the State are opium and grain. In 1871, the Ráwat Moti Singh announced his conversion to the

Muhammadan faith, and took the name of Muhammad Abdul Wasih Khán. He received the title of Nawáb from the British Government in 1872, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. On the death of Muhammad Abdul Wasih Khán in 1880, his son Bakhtáwar Singh succeeded to the chiefship; the latter died in 1882, and was succeeded by his son Balbahádur Singh, the present chief. Having been but a child at the time of his grandfather's change of faith, Balbahádur Singh has been again received by his brother chiefs as one of themselves, and the family have resumed their position as Rájputs of the Omat clan. The military force consists of 240 cavalry, 360 infantry, 4 field and 8 other guns, with 12 artillerymen. The town of Rájgarh contains a population (1881) of 6881, namely, Hindus, 5617; Muhammadans, 1134; and 'others,' 130. It lies in lat. 24° 0′ 23° N., and long. 76° 46′ 38″ E.; elevation above sea-level, 1210 feet.

Rájgarh.—Guaranteed Thákurate under the Deputy Bhíl Agency of Central India. Population (1881) 706. The chief or Bhúmiá holds the villages of Rájgarh (with a hill fort) and Dhál under a *sanad* from the British Government dated 18th March 1871, and receives payment from both Holkar and the Dhár State, on condition of keeping the roads free from thieves, and being answerable for all robberies in certain tracts.

Rájgarh.—*Parganá* in Múl *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; comprising 140 villages, with an area of 447 square miles. The Waingangá river bounds it on the east; it is intersected from the north by two branches of the Andhárí, which meet about its centre, and a third branch flows along its western boundary in a south-easterly direction. The western and northern portions are hilly and covered with forests; in the lowlands, the soil is sandy, and produces rice and sugar-cane. Principal towns, SAOLI and MUL. Rájgarh formerly belonged to the Gond princes of Wairágarh.

Rájgarh.—Fort in Sirmur (Sarmor) State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 52′ N., long. 77° 23′ E. Situated upon a natural terrace, projecting from the side of a mountain. Square outline; tower at each corner, about 40 feet high and 20 square. Fired and nearly demolished by the Gúrkhas in 1814, but recently restored. Elevation above sea-level, 7115 feet.

Rájgarh.—Town in Ajmere-Merwára District, Rájputána; distant from Ajmere city 10 miles south, from Nasírábád 6 miles west. Lat. 26° 17′ 50″ N., long. 74° 40′ 35″ E. Ruins of a fort, with rampart of massive rough stones. Small lake, apparently artificial. Held by Gaur Rájputs before the ascendency of the Ráhtors, and restored in *jágír* to the descendant of its original rulers in 1874.

Rájghát. — Fort in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, commanding the city of Benares, and situated on an eminence 50 feet above the plain, at the junction of the Barna river with the Ganges.

Erected during the Mutiny of 1857 to command the ferry, but now abandoned. The ferry will shortly be superseded by a handsome bridge across the Ganges, now (1885) under construction by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Rájghát. Considerable remains of Buddhist buildings have been found on the site of the fort.

Rájgir.—Ruins in Patná District, Bengal.—*See* RAJAGRIHA.

Rájim.—Town in Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces, at the junction of the Pairí and Mahánadi rivers, 24 miles south-east of Ráipur town. Lat. 20° 58′ 30″ N., long. 81° 55′ 0″ E. Famous for the temple of Rájíva Lochan, and for the pilgrimage and fair held in his honour every February. The fair lasts a month, and attracts from 20,000 to 30,000 persons. The temple contains an image 4 feet high, of black stone, standing, and facing the west. Its four arms hold the Hindu emblems of the conch, the discus, the club, and the lotus. Garuda, the bird of Vishnu, faces the god in a posture of devotion; and behind him are images of Hanumán and of Jagat Pál, the founder of the temple. The doorway between them, finely carved with Nágas (serpent demi-gods) entwined in endless folds, leads to two modern temples of Mahádeva; and a third, behind, is dedicated to the wife of an oil-seller, contemporary, according to a popular story, with Jagat Pál. In the same court of the great temple are shrines sacred to Narsinha, Wáman, Varáha, Badrínáth, and Jagannáth. The temple of Rámchandra contains two ancient inscriptions, one of them dated Samvat 796, or A.D. 750. Both commemorate the origin of Jagat Pál, and recount the enemies he conquered. Mention is also made of a fort called Durgá (doubtless Drúg, 25 miles west of Ráipur), which Jagat Pál obtained by marrying the Rájá's daughter. On a small rocky island at the junction of the rivers stands a temple of Mahádeva, called Kuleswar, said to have been built by the widow of Jagat Pál. It bears an inscription, now illegible. Rájim has a town school, a District post-office, and a police station. Population (1881) 3252, namely, Hindus, 2751; Satnámís, 369; Kabírpanthís, 71; and Muhammadans, 61. Rájim is also a depôt for the collection and export of lac, of which from 3000 to 4000 bullock-loads are annually sent to the markets of Nágpur and Jabalpur.

Rájkot.—Native State in the Hallár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 283 square miles, comprising 1 town and 60 villages. Population (1881) 46,540, namely, 24,778 males and 21,762 females, occupying 9325 houses. Hindus number 36,929; Muhammadans, 6775; and 'others,' 2836. An undulating country, with a stony soil, watered by several streams, of which only one, the Ají, is perennial. The common kinds of grain, sugar-cane, and cotton are the principal agricultural products. They are exported from Gogo and Jorya, and to a certain extent by rail from Wadhwán. Carts are the

chief means of transport, but pack-bullocks and horses are also employed. The climate, though hot in the months of April, May, and October, is generally healthy. Rainfall, 22·5 inches in 1882. The prevalent disease is fever.

Rájkot is an offshoot of Nawánagar, and ranks officially as a 'second-class' State in Káthiáwár. In 1807, the ruler executed the usual engagements. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. The family follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession, and hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The present (1881–82) chief, Thákur Sáhib Báwájí, is a Hindu of the Járeja Rájput caste, and administers his State in person. He received his education at the Rájkumar College at Rájkot. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £17,278, and pays a tribute of £2132 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. He maintains a military force of 336 men. The State contains 14 schools, with a total of 1168 pupils. No transit dues are levied.

Rájkot.—Chief town of the State of Rájkot in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 17′ 40″ N., long. 70° 55′ 45″ E. Population (1872) 11,979, exclusive of the civil and military station; (1881) 15,139, namely, 7725 males and 7414 females. Hindus number 10,305; Muhammadans, 3032; Jains, 1795; Christians, 2; and Pársís, 5. Rájkot is a cantonment, and the head-quarters of the Political Agent for Káthiáwár. Population of the civil and military station (1881) 6013, namely, Hindus, 3908; Muhammadans, 1631; Pársís, 142; Christians, 126; Jains, 89; and 'others,' 117. It contains a college for the sons of chiefs, a sort of Eton for the aristocracy of Western India, which has already done good work in the education and moral training of those who will hereafter be the rulers of the Káthiáwár Native States. Famous for its dyes; good general trade. Post and telegraph offices; School of Art; Alfred High School; churches; Irish Presbyterian Mission House; jail; travellers' bungalow and *dharmsála*. Will shortly be connected with the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Rájmahál.—Sub-division of the Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 42′ 15″ to 25° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 29′ 45″ to 87° 57′ E. Area, 751 square miles; villages, 1326; houses, 47,241. Population (1881) 253,825, namely, males 126,420, and females 127,405. Average density of population, 338 persons per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1·8; persons per village, 191; houses per square mile, 62·05; inmates per house, 5·37. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 114,702; Muhammadans, 21,564; Christians, 1182; Jains, 2; Jews, 6; non-Hindu Santáls, 99,116; other non-Hindu aborigines, 17,253. In 1884 the Sub-

division contained 3 civil and 3 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 41 men, and a village watch or rural police of 448 *chaukídárs.*

Rájmahál.—Town in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 2′ 51″ N., and long. 87° 52′ 51″ E., on the right bank of the Ganges. Now a mere collection of mud huts, interspersed with a few respectable houses. The ruins of the old Muhammadan city, buried in rank jungle, extend for about 4 miles to the west of the modern town. Mán Singh, Akbar's Rájput general, after his return from the conquest of Orissa in 1592, selected Rájmahál (formerly Agmahál) as the capital of Bengal, on account of its central position with respect to that Province and to Behar, and from its commanding the Ganges and the pass of Teliágarhí, through which the railway now runs. The chief antiquities of Rájmahál are the Jamá Masjíd of Mán Singh, the palaces of Sultán Shujá and Mír Kásim Alí, Nawáb of Bengal, the Phulbárí or flower-garden, and numerous mosques and monuments. [For a full account of these, and of the history of Rájmahál, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 325, 326.]

In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton estimated that the town contained from 25,000 to 30,000 persons. In 1881, the Census returned the population at 3839. Rájmahál is a distributing centre for cotton goods, and also a seat of export trade in grain, *tasar* silk, small-sized timber, hill bamboos, oil-seeds, etc. In 1860, when the loop-line of the East Indian Railway was opened to this town, an arm of the Ganges ran immediately under the station, forming a navigable channel for steamers and boats of all sizes. In 1863–64 the river abandoned this channel, leaving an alluvial bank in its place. Rájmahál was, till 1879, 3 miles distant from the main stream of the Ganges, and could only be approached by large boats during the rains. In 1879 the Ganges returned to its old bed, but in 1882 it showed indications of again deserting it. In consequence of these changes, the bulk of the trade has been transferred to SAHIBGANJ, though Rájmahál still retains the local traffic across the Ganges with Maldah District.

Rájmahál Hills.—Hill tract in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal, known as the Dáman-i-koh; estimated to cover an area of 1366 square miles. The height nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above sea-level, and the average elevation is considerably less. The most striking feature of the northern portion of this range is the great central valley, which extends 24 miles north and south, with an average width of 5 miles, and is surrounded by hills on every side. The Rájmahál Hills were long regarded as a continuation of the Vindhyan range of Central India; but Mr. V. Ball, of the Geological Survey, after a detailed examination of these hills, came to the conclusion that they form an isolated

group, the north-eastern extremity of which constitutes the turning-point of the Ganges. Geologically there is nothing in common between the two. The Vindhyas are composed of quartzite, sandstone, limestone, and shales of great age; while the Rájmahál Hills consists of overflowing basaltic trap of comparatively recent date, resting upon coal measures and metamorphic rocks of a gneissose character.

Rájnagar.—Town and fort in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána; situated on the southern side of the Ráj Samand lake, about 39 miles north north-east of Udaipur city.

Rájnagar.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal.—*See* NAGAR.

Rájoli.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Sakolí *tahsíl* in the south-east of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; comprising 12 villages, with an area of 43 square miles, less than 2 of which are cultivated. Population (1881) 1625. The chief is a Muhammadan; but the population consists for the most part of Gonds and Gaulís. The forests afford pasturage to large herds of cattle. The village of Rájoli lies in lat. 20° 40′ N., and long. 80° 16′ E.

Rájpara.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *pranth* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders or tribute-payers. Population (1881) 610. Area, 1 square mile; situated 2½ miles north-east of Jesar. The revenue is estimated at £252; and tribute of £25, 12s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpipla.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency, lying between lat. 21° 23′ and 21° 59′ N., and between long. 73° 5′ and 74° E. Bounded on the north by the river Narbadá (Nerbudda) and the Mehwási estates of Rewá Kántha; on the east by the Mehwási estates under the District of Khándesh; on the south by the State of Baroda, and Surat District; and on the west by Broach District. Its extreme length from north to south is 42 miles, and its extreme breadth from east to west, 60 miles. Area (comprising 1 town and 211 villages), 1514 square miles. Population (1872) 120,036, of whom about 60 per cent. were Bhíls. The Census Report of 1881 returned males 59,834, and females 54,922; total, 114,756; occupying 22,494 houses; density of population, 75·8 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 47,811; Muhammadans, 5161; and 'others,' 61,784, mostly Bhíls.

Two-thirds of the State are occupied by a continuation of the Sátpura range, known as the Rájpipla Hills, nowhere exceeding 2000 feet in height above the sea, which form the watershed between the rivers Narbadá and Tápti. Towards the west, the hills gradually subside into gentle undulations. The State contains several forests, yielding valuable teak, blackwood, and other timber, which is exported in large quantities to the neighbouring British Districts. In the

Narbadá valley the soil is alluvial and very productive, and by far the largest share of the revenue is derived from lands lying in the vicinity of that river. The more valuable crops, such as cotton, oil-seeds, tobacco, and sugar-cane, are grown on lands annually submerged by the Narbadá floods. The principal rivers of Rájpipla are the Narbadá, skirting the territory north and west for nearly 100 miles; and the Karjan, which rises in the hills of the Nánchal *parganá*, and, flowing north into the Narbadá, divides the State into two equal portions. Carnelian mines are worked at Ratanpur, a village about 14 miles above the town of Broach. Iron of good quality used to be made near Ratanpur. The chief routes through the country are a cart-track between Khándesh and Gujarát, and a road from Surat to Málwá, which crosses the Narbadá at Tilakwára. The climate is exceedingly unhealthy, malarious fevers being prevalent from September to February. Rainfall, 58 inches in 1881.

The family of the Rájpipla chief is said to derive its origin from one Chokárána, son of Saidáwat, Rájá of Ujjain, a Rájput of the Parnar tribe, who, having quarrelled with his father, left his own country and established himself in the village of Pipla, in the most inaccessible part of the hills to the west of the modern town of Nándod. The only daughter of Chokárána married Mokers or Makheráj, a Rájput of the Gohel tribe, who resided in the island of Premgar or Perim, in the Gulf of Cambay. Makheráj had by her two sons, Dungarjí and Gemarsinghjí. The former founded Bhaunagar, and the latter succeeded Chokárána. Since that time (about 1470) the Gohel dynasty has ruled in Rájpipla.

The Musalmán kings of Ahmadábád had before this taken an agreement from the Rájá to furnish 1000 foot-soldiers and 300 horse-men. This arrangement remained in force until Akbar took Gujarát, in 1573, when he imposed a tribute on the country of £3555 in lieu of the contingent. This was paid until the end of the reign of Aurangzeb (1707), when, the imperial authority declining, the payments became irregular, and if opportunity favoured, were altogether evaded. Subsequent to the overthrow of the Muhammadan authority, Dámájí Gáekwár, in the latter half of the 18th century, succeeded in securing a half-share of four of the most fertile sub-divisions of the territory. These were afterwards released at the cost of an annual payment of £4000 to the Gáekwár, and this sum later on was raised to £9200. Such rapid and frequent encroachments on the State, and internal quarrels, led to the intervention of the British Government. About the close of 1821, of two disputants, the rightful claimant, Verisaljí, was placed on the throne by the British. Verisaljí ruled till 1860, when, with the permission of the British Government, he abdicated in favour of his only son, Gambhersinghjí. The present (1883)

chief is thirty-six years of age. His estimated gross revenue in 1878 was £67,000; in 1882-83, £60,000. A tribute of £6500 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, through the British Government. He maintains a force of 566 men, horse and foot, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He has power to try for capital offences, without the permission of the Political Agent, any person except British subjects. The capital of the State, NANDOD, is situated on the river Karjan, in lat. 21° 54′ N., long. 73° 34′ E. A palace was built here about fifty-five years ago, previous to which time the rulers of the country resided in a fort on the hills, called Rájpipla. Ten schools for boys and one for girls. Dispensary.

Rájpipla.—Old capital and fort of Rájpipla State, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency; situated on a spur of the Devsátra hill, about 8 miles west of Nandod, the present capital. On the spur are two forts; one, Pipla, being the original stronghold of the chiefs, where they lived till 1730. It is almost inaccessible to any but a Bhíl. No wheeled vehicles can pass, the road lying through a narrow gorge between high overhanging hills. In former times it was a safe retreat, when, if invaded, the chief blocked the path with wood and rubbish. There are still traces of the village, now inhabited only by a few Bhíls.

The new fort of Rájpipla, built about 1730, is approached, along the bank of the Karjan, through two miles of a wild and beautiful mountain gorge. Both sides of the hills overhanging the stream are crowned by breastworks, and the road is rugged enough to make access to the fort difficult. In front of the fort, the *Lál Darwáza*, a gateway with flanking towers, completely bars the road. The fort, a square court with walls about 10 feet high, enclosing an area of 8 acres, contains the palace, a paltry structure with flanking towers.

Rájpur.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 1 tribute-payer. Situated about 3 miles north-east of Wadhwán civil station, and close to the Bombay and Baroda Railway. Area, 15 square miles. Population (1881) 1674. The revenue is estimated at £1400; tribute of £241 is paid to the British Government, and £18, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpur.—Petty State of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1½ square miles. The chief is named Ráwal Súr Singh. The revenue is estimated at £26; and tribute of £5, 2s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Rájpur.—Town and municipality in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Population (1881) 10,576, namely, males 5101, and females 5475. Hindus number 9733; Muhammadans, 841; and 'others,' 2. Municipal income (1883-84), £640, of which £592 was derived from taxation; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1⅜d. per head.

Rájpur.—Town in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces;

situated 7 miles north of Dehra town, at the foot of the hills. Population (1881) 3293. The town or rather village is simply a halting-stage on the road to Masuri, where ponies, coolies, etc., are procured for the last stage of the journey up the hill. Rájpur contains three or four hotels, and a rest-house for the convenience of travellers. Post-office and dispensary.

Rájpura.—Petty State in the Hallár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of 7 villages, with 1 tribute-payer. Situated 14 miles south-east of Rájkot. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 2094. The revenue is estimated at £1200; tribute of £292 is paid to the British Government, and £24 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rájpur Alí.—Native State under the Bhopáwar Agency of Central India; lying between the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river and the Vindhya Mountains. Area, 837 square miles. Population (1875) 29,000; (1881) 56,827. Hindus number 35,834; Muhammadans, 1871; Jains, 167; and aborigines, 18,955. The products are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus) and *makka* or Indian corn. No richer crops can be raised in the hilly tracts, of which the greater part of the State is composed. The revenue in 1870–71 was returned at £16,154, and the expenditure at £12,977; revenue (1882), £9500; expenditure, £8874.

The chiefs of Rájpur Alí are Sesodia Rájputs, connected with the Udaipur (Oodeypore) family. There is no record of the date when the State was established, or of its first rulers. It appears, however, owing to its wild and hilly position, to have been little disturbed during the turmoils caused by the Maráthá invasion of Málwá. Immediately before the establishment of British supremacy in Málwá, Ráná Pratáb Singh was chief of Rájpur Alí. He had in his service a Mekráni adventurer named Musáfir, who put down pretenders to the succession, and managed the State, after the Ráná's death, in trust for his posthumous son, Jaswant Singh. Jaswant Singh died in 1862, leaving a will by which he divided the State between his two sons. The British Government, in consultation with the neighbouring chiefs, set this will aside, and allowed the elder son, Gangdeo, to succeed to the whole State; but during the later years of Gangdeo's life, his incompetence, and the anarchy arising therefrom, compelled the British authorities to take the territory temporarily under management. Gangdeo died in 1871, and was succeeded by his brother Rúpdeo, who died in 1881. The State is at present under British administration, while the adopted chief is being educated during his minority at the Rajkumár College at Indore. The State pays a tribute of £1100 to the British Government, of which £1000 is paid over to the State of Dhár, to which Rájpur Alí was formerly feudatory. Rájpur Alí also contributes £150 per annum towards the cost of the Málwá

Bhíl Corps. The military force consists of 2 guns, 9 horsemen, and 150 policemen. The chief is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. The State contains (1882) one Urdu and six Hindí schools.

Rájputána.—In the administrative nomenclature of the Indian Empire, Rájputána is the name of a great territorial circle, which includes 20 States, having each its own autonomy and separate chief, together with the British District of Ajmere-Merwárá. These territories lie between 23° and 30° N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 78° 15′ E. long.; their total area is estimated at 132,461 square miles (including 2711 square miles, the area of Ajmere-Merwárá); and their total population (including 460,722, the population of Ajmere-Merwárá) at 10,562,771 souls. In addition, Rájputána contains the Bhíl population of the States of Udaipur, Partábgarh, Dungarpur, and Bánswára, of whom no accurate census could be taken. These Bhíls are supposed to number 166,343. The following table gives a detailed estimate of area and population, etc. for 1881:—

Name.	Estimated Area in Sq. Miles.	Towns and Villages.	Occupied Houses	Population. Both Sexes.	Population. Male.	Population. Female.	Estimated Revenue.
							£
Alwar (Ulwur),	3,024	1,747	101,348	682,926	360,384	322,542	230,000
Bánswárá, . .	1,500	1,081	35,820	104,000[1]	53,498	50,502	28,000
Bhartpur, . .	1,974	1,359	88,104	645,540	350,475	295,065	280,000
Bíkaner (Bickaneer), . .	22,340	1,739	107,569	509,021	293,650	215,371	125,000
Búndi, . . .	2,300	842	60,565	254,701	133,103	121,598	60,000
Dholpur, . .	1,200	538	48,429	249,657	138,342	111,315	110,000
Dungarpur, .	1,000	421	36,226	86,429[2]	44,568	41,861	20,000
Jaipur, . . .	14,465	5,964	507,697	2,534,357	1,369,134	1,165,223	500,000
Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere), .	16,447	414	26,217	108,143	61,127	47,016	12,000
Jhálawár, . .	2,694	1,457	63,001	340,488	183,039	157,449	150,000
Karauli, . .	1,208	862	25,930	148,670	80,645	68,025	50,000
Kishengarh, .	724	213	24,928	112,633	59,098	53,535	28,000
Kotah, . . .	3,797	1,611	130,698	517,275	269,924	247,351	295,000
Láwa, . . .	18	1	591	2,682	1,360	1,322	...
Márwár or Jodhpur, .	37,000	3,785	386,707	1,750,403	969,125	781,278	400,000
Mewár or Udaipur, .	12,670	5,722	324,136	1,443,144[3]	772,685	670,459	510,000
Partábgarh, .	1,460	569	18,622	79,298[4]	41,118	38,180	...
Sháhpura, . .	400	118	10,849	51,750	27,217	24,533	3,500
Sirohi, . . .	3,020	366	30,532	142,903	76,132	66,771	...
Tonk, . . .	2,509	1,192	73,482	338,029	176,869	161,160	120,000
Ajmere-Merwárá (British),	2,711	739	64,118	460,722	248,844	211,878	...
	132,461	30,740	2,165,569	10,562,771	5,710,337	4,852,434	...

[1] Exclusive of 48,045 Bhíls.
[2] Exclusive of 66,952 Bhíls.
[3] Exclusive of 51,076 Bhíls.
[4] Exclusive of 270 Bhíls.

Rájputána, as traced on the map, is of very irregular shape, being touched on the west, north, east, and south by the extreme outer boundary lines of the States of Jaisalmer, Bíkaner, Dholpur, and Bánswára. On the west, Rájputána is bounded by the Province of Sind, and on the north-west by the State of Baháwalpur. Thence its northern and eastern frontier marches with the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces, until, as it turns south-eastward, it touches Sindhia's country. Its southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line, which separates the Rájputána States from a number of other Native States in Central India, and which marks off generally the northern extension of that great belt of territory subject, mediately or immediately, to the Maráthá powers—Sindhia, Holkar, and the Gáekwár of Baroda.

It may be useful to give roughly the geographical position of the several States within this area.

The States of Jaisalmer, Márwár or Jodhpur, and Bíkaner form a homogeneous group in the west and north.

In the north-east is Alwar (Ulwur), and a tract called Shaikháwati, subject to Jaipur.

Jaipur, Bhartpur, Dholpur, Karauli, Búndi, Kotah, and Jháláwár may be grouped together as the eastern and south-eastern States.

The southern States are Partábgarh, Bánswárá, Dungarpur, Mewár or Udaipur, with Sirohi in the south-west.

In the centre lie the British District of Ajmere, Kishengarh State, the petty chiefship of Sháhpura, with parts of Tonk. As the last State consists of six isolated patches of territory, it does not fall wholly into any one of these rough geographical groups.

Physical Aspects. — The Aravalli mountains intersect the country almost from end to end, in a line running nearly north-east and south-west. About three-fifths of Rájputána lie north-west of this line, leaving two-fifths on the south-east. The heights of Mount Abu lie at the south-western extremity of this range; whilst its north-eastern end may be said to terminate near Khetri in the Shaikháwati country, though a series of broken rocks and ridges are continued in the direction of Delhi. In the following paragraphs, and throughout this article, an excellent account of Rájputána, supplied by the Foreign Office, Calcutta, is used. Its length (99 pages), however, precludes the incorporation of the article in full.

Looking first at the division of Rájputána that lies north-west of the Aravallis, a vast tract stretches from Sind on the west along the Southern Punjab frontier to near Delhi on the north-east. As a whole, this tract is sandy, ill watered, and unproductive; improving gradually from a mere desert in the far west and north-west, to comparatively fertile and habitable lands towards the north-east. The Great Desert,

which separates Rájputána from Sind along the whole of its western frontier, extends from the edges of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh) beyond the Loni river northward. Eastward of this is a zone of less absolutely sterile country, consisting of rocky land cut up by limestone ridges, which to some degree protect it from the desert sands; and still farther eastward is 'The Little Desert,' which runs up from the Loni between Jaisalmer and Jodhpur into the northern wastes.

The desert region is the same everywhere. It is covered with sand-hills, shaped generally in long, straight ridges, which seldom meet, but run in parallel lines, separated by short and fairly regular intervals, something like the ripple marks on a sea-shore upon a magnified scale. Some of these ridges may be 2 miles long, varying from 50 to 100 feet in height. Their sides are water-marked, and at a distance they look like substantial low hills. Their summits are blown up and curved like waves by the action of the periodical westerly winds. They are sparsely clothed with stunted shrubs and tufts of coarse grass in the dry season, and the light rains cover them with vegetation. The villages within the desert, though always known by a local name, cannot be reckoned as fixed habitations, for their permanence depends entirely on the supply of water in the wells, which is constantly failing or turning brackish; and so soon as the water gives out, the village must shift. A little water is collected in small tanks or pools, which become dry before the stress of the heat begins; and in places there are long marshes impregnated with salt. This is the character, with more or less variation, of the whole north and north-west of Rájputána. The cultivation is everywhere poor and precarious, though certain parts have a better soil than others, and some tracts are comparatively productive. Nevertheless, the principal towns within this region are well built and fairly prosperous; they have for ages managed the traffic across the desert, and their position has given them immunity from predatory armies. The towns along the southern border of this tract have already been substantially affected for good by the construction of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway, which runs a little to the north of the Aravalli mountains.

In the central midland part of Rájputána, the Aravalli mountains lose the character of a distinct range; and north-eastward from this region they never altogether re-unite, though their general direction is clearly indicated by successive hills and rocky eminences as far as the group of hills near Khetri. Amid these disunited hills stands the town of Ajmere, on the highest level of an open table-land spreading eastward towards Jaipur, and sloping on all sides. From Abu to Ajmere, the Aravallis offer a fairly clear line of demarcation between the sandy inferior land of the north-west, and the more fertile districts of the south-east; but beyond Ajmere the contrast is no longer so plainly marked.

The south-eastern division of Rájputána, which is considerably smaller in extent than the other, consists of the higher and more fertile countries behind the Aravallis. This division may be circumscribed by a line starting from the south-western extremity of that range, and sweeping round first south-eastward, then eastward along the northern frontiers of Gujarát and Málwá. Where it meets Gwalior territory, the border-line turns northward, and eventually runs along the Chambal, until that river enters the British dominions. It then skirts the British possessions in the basin of the Jumna as it goes northward, past Agra and Muttra, up to the neighbourhood of Delhi. In contrast to the sandy plains, which are the uniform feature, more or less modified, of the north-west, this south-eastern division has a very diversified character. It contains extensive hill ranges, and long stretches of rocky wold and woodland. It is traversed by considerable rivers, and in many parts there are wide vales, fertile table-lands, and breadths of excellent soil. Behind the loftiest and most clearly defined section of the Aravallis, which runs between Abu and Ajmere, lies the Mewár (Udaipur) country, occupying all the eastern flank of the range, at a level 800 or 900 feet higher than the plains on the west. And whereas the descent of the western slopes is abrupt towards Márwár (or the Jodhpur country); on the eastern or Mewár side, the land falls very gradually as it recedes from the long parallel ridges which mark the water-parting, through a country full of high hills and deep gullies, much broken up by irregular rocky eminences, until it spreads out into the open champaign of the centre of Mewár. Towards the south-western corner of Mewár, the broken country behind the Aravallis is prolonged farthest into the interior; and here the outskirts of the main range do not soften down into level tracts, but become entangled in a confused network of outlying hills and valleys, covered for the most part with thick jungle, which forms that very peculiar region known to British political administration as the Hilly Tracts of Mewár.

All the south-east of Rájputána is watered by the drainage of the Vindhya mountains, carried north-eastward by the Banás and Chambal rivers. North of Jhálra Pátan, the country on the eastern side of the territory rises to a remarkable plateau called the Pátar, upon which lies all Kotah State, with parts of Búndi on the north and of Jháláwár on the south. Eastward, this plateau falls, by a very gradual descent, to the Gwalior country, and the basin of the Betwa river. Beyond the Pátar, to the north-east of the junction of the Banás and Chambal, there is a very rugged and hilly region along the frontier line of the Chambal in Karauli State; and farther northward, the country opens out towards Bhartpur territory, whose flat plains belong to the alluvial basin of the Jumna.

Rivers and Water System.—In the north-west division of Rájputána, the only river of importance is the Loni, which rises in the Pukar valley close to Ajmere, and runs south-west for about 200 miles into the Rann of Cutch. It receives and cuts off from the western plains all the drainage brought by the mountain torrents down the western slopes of the Aravallis between Ajmere and Abu. Running for the most part over a sandy bed between low banks, its waters are brackish, and the bed occasionally yields salt—hence its name, meaning 'the salt river.' When very heavy rain falls, the Loni overflows its banks to a breadth of some 5 miles, leaving as it recedes a rich alluvium, which gives excellent crops.

North-west of the Loni there are no perennial streams in the country; and the north-east of Rájputána has hardly one worth mentioning, nor does any water penetrate from this region eastward into the Jumna water system, until as far south as the Bángangá river, which runs out through Bhartpur. The high watershed of the midland country about Ajmere and Jaipur sends all its appreciable contributions of water southward into the Banás.

The south-eastern division of Rájputána has a river system of importance. The Chambal flows through the territory for about one-third of its course, and forms its boundary for another third. It enters Rájputána at Chaurásgarh, on the south-east border of Mewár, where the old fort of that name stands 300 feet above the stream, and the stream level is 1166 feet above the sea, the width of the bed being about 1000 yards. Thirty miles lower down, at Bhainsrorgarh, it meets the Bámní river, at an elevation of 1009 feet above the sea. Just above this place occurs the series of small cataracts locally known as Chulis, of which the total fall is about 80 feet. In its course through Kotah the Chambal receives several large streams flowing northward from the Vindhyas, and so much of the drainage of the Mewár plateau as is not intercepted by the Banás. Farther northward it receives its two principal tributaries, the Párbatí from the right and the Banás from the left. It emerges into the open country near Dholpur, and finally discharges itself into the Jumna after a total course of about 560 miles.

The Banás, which is next in importance to the Chambal, rises in the south-west, near Kankraoli in Mewár. It collects nearly all the drainage of the Mewár plateau, besides that of the south-eastern slopes and hill tracts of the Aravallis. It joins the Chambal a little beyond the north-eastern extremity of Búndi State, after a course of about 300 miles.

Among the south-western hills of Mewár, the Western Banás and the Sabarmati take their rise, but attain no size or importance until after passing the Rájputána frontier towards the south-west.

The Mahi, a considerable river in Gujarát, runs for some distance through the territories of Partábgarh and Bánswárá, but it neither begins nor ends in Rájputána. Its chief tributary in this part is the Som, which flows first east and then southward through Mewár. These rivers carry off the drainage of the south-west corner of Rájputána into the Gulfs of Cutch and Cambay.

Rájputána has no natural fresh-water lakes, the only considerable basin being the well-known salt lake at SAMBHAR. There are some fine artificial lakes in Mewár State; the largest are those near Debar and Kankraoli, of which the former is a noble sheet of water, about 25 or 30 miles in circumference, constructed in 1681 A.D. by Ráná Jái Singh, and named from him the 'Jai Samand.' There are also artificial lakes in the Eastern States, about Búndi and Kotah, and in the British District of Ajmere-Merwárá.

Hills.—The Aravallis are the only mountains in Rájputána. Taking the range from the north-east, it first appears on a large scale near Khetri, in the north of Jaipur; thence trending in a south-west direction, it skirts the western limit of the Sámbhar lake, continues in the same direction to Ajmere, and on to the south-west of Beawar, where the hills begin to assume the consistency and compact elevation of a range, separating the plain of Márwár from the upland country of Mewár. The chain loses its distinctive formation amid wide tracts of hilly wastes extending southward over the whole western half of Mewár. The heights of MOUNT ABU lie at the south-western extremity of this range.

The other hill ranges of Rájputána, although numerous, are comparatively insignificant. The towns of Alwar and Jaipur lie among groups of hills more or less connected. In Bhartpur State is a range of some local importance; the highest peak being Alipur, 1357 feet above sea-level. South of these are the Karauli hills, whose greatest height nowhere exceeds 1400 feet above sea-level. In the eastern States, a low but well-defined range runs transversely south-west and north-east. This range presents a clear scarp for about 25 miles on its south-eastern face, and gives very few openings for roads. A series of steep hills runs along the northern or left bank of the Chambal river, as a continuation of the Búndi hills, through Karauli to Dholpur. The Makomdára range runs across the south-western portion of Kotah State from the Chambal to beyond Jhálra Pátan. This range has a curious double formation of two separate ridges, running parallel at a distance of more than a mile; the interval being filled with dense jungle, and in some parts with cultivated lands.

Geology.—Rájputána may be divided into three geological regions—a central, and the largest, comprising the whole width of the Aravalli system, formed of very old sub-metamorphic and gneissic rocks; an

eastern region, with sharply defined boundary, along which the most ancient formations are abruptly replaced by the great basin of Vindhyan strata, or are overlaid by the still more extensive spread of the Deccan trap, forming the plateau of Málwá; and a western region, of very ill-defined margin, in which, besides some rocks of undetermined age, it is known or suspected that tertiary and secondary strata stretch across from Sind, beneath the sands of the desert, towards the flanks of the Aravallis.

Compared with many parts of peninsular India, Rájputána may be considered rich, if not in the quantity, at least in the variety, of metals it produces. Ore of cobalt has not been obtained from any other locality in India; and although zinc blend is found elsewhere, Rájputána is the only part of the country in which zinc is known to have been extracted. Copper and lead exist in several parts of the Aravalli range, and in the minor ranges of Alwar and Shaikháwati; and iron-ores abound in Alwar, Mewár, Kotah, and Jháláwár.

Unfortunately very little has yet been ascertained in detail about this great mineral wealth, or as to the probable increase in yield that might be obtained from improved processes of mining. The most important copper-mines are those near Khetri in the Shaikháwati district of Jaipur; and here some of the hills are honeycombed with the old excavations, whilst the accumulations of slag from the furnaces form a range of huge hillocks. In 1830, the annual out-turn of lead from the mines near Ajmere is said to have been about 850 cwts. At Jáwar, south of Udaipur, considerable quantities of zinc were formerly obtained; in Tod's *Rájásthán*, the mines are said to have yielded £22,200 a year, but this is probably an exaggeration. These mines were abandoned in consequence of a famine in 1812–13, and they have not been re-opened. Large deposits of specular and magnetic iron-ore (hematite) occur in several places in the Aravalli rocks, and are worked on a small scale to supply native furnaces. Nickel has been found in iron made from the Bhángarh ore. Alum and blue vitriol (sulphate of copper) are manufactured from decomposed schists at Khetri in Shaikháwati.

The only known Indian ore of cobalt is a grey metallic substance known as *sehta*, occurring in small cubes mixed with pyrrhotite (magnetic iron pyrites) in the copper mines of Khetri (Shaikháwati). The composition of this mineral, which has received the name of Jaipurite (wrongly written Syepoorite in most books), is still imperfectly ascertained. It was at first supposed to be a simple sulphide of cobalt, but subsequent examination has rendered it probable that antimony and arsenic are also contained in the mineral. The ore was formerly extensively used for colouring enamels, bangles, etc., of a blue colour, and, it is said, for giving a rose colour to gold—an art unknown in Europe, and deserving of further inquiry.

The rocks of Rájputána are rich in good building materials. Two of its forms of limestone—(1) the Raialo limestone, a fine-grained crystalline marble, quarried at Raialo in Alwar, and at Makrána in Jodhpur; and (2) the Jaisalmer limestone—are well known for their beauty and usefulness. The Makrána quarries supplied the chief portion of the stone for building the Táj at Agra, as well as the marble used in decorating many other buildings in Northern and North-Western India. About 1000 workmen are employed at the present day in quarrying and working the stone at Makrána alone.

The sources of the salt for which Rájputána is celebrated are practically confined to that tract which lies north of the Aravallis. (*See* SAMBHAR LAKE.)

Forests.—Although the woodlands are extensive upon the south-western Aravallis and throughout the adjoining hilly tracts, there are no forests of large timber in Rájputána. Mount Abu is well wooded from base to summit, and possesses several valuable kinds of timber; and from Abu north-westward the western slopes of the range are still well clothed with trees and bushes up to the neighbourhood of Merwárá. Below the hills on the western side runs a belt of jungle, sometimes spreading out along the river beds for some distance into the plain. All vegetation, however, rapidly decreases in the direction of the Loni river; and beyond that river, Márwár, Bíkaner, and Jaisalmer have scarcely any trees at all, except a few plantations close to villages or towns.

In Sirohi and all over the south-western part of Mewár, the woodlands stretch for many miles, covering the hills with scrub jungle and the valleys with thickets. In many places, teak and other valuable timber trees would thrive well if the forests were not periodically burned by the Bhíls and other half-savage dwellers in these tracts. In the eastern States, the woodlands are considerable. South of the Banás and along parts of the Chambal are immense wolds, covered for the most part with small trees; and near the capitals and around forts of the principal chiefs the woods have been carefully preserved for game or for defence, while deep thickets may be seen which are sacred to some deity. The southernmost States of Bánswárá, Dungarpur, and Partábgarh are perhaps the best wooded in proportion to their area. In Bhartpur there are some valuable reserved woodlands, one of which occupies an area of about 40 square miles, and is worked for fuel. Nowhere, however, have the woods been more closely cut down than in the British District of Ajmere. Large wastes have now been set apart to repair this loss by careful conservation.

Rájputána does not possess a flora peculiar to itself, but rather presents a field on which the floras of dry India and of the deserts of Western Asia and Northern Africa meet. There are no species

peculiar to this area, every plant in it being found also either in the adjacent Provinces of Central India, Gujarát, the Punjab, North-Western Provinces, or in the dry regions of the Deccan and Southern India; several of them occur also in countries far beyond the limits of the Indian Empire.

History. — As of other parts of India, the history of Rájputána before the advent of the Muhammadans is very obscure, and its materials are scanty. Only faint outlines can be traced of the condition of the country; and these indicate that it was subject for the most part to two or three powerful tribal dynasties. The Ráhtors, whose seat of dominion was at Kanauj, were for a long time the family whose rule was strongest and most widely extended; whilst much of South-West Rájputána was ruled by a dynasty whose head-quarters were in Gujarát. With these, and in succession to them, other tribal dynasties arose. In the 11th century, at the time of the conquests of Mahmúd of Ghazní, the leading tribes were the Solankhyas of Anhilwárá in Gujarát, the Chauháns of Ajmere, and the Ráhtors of Kanauj; whilst the Gehlot clan had established itself in Mewár or Udaipur (still occupied by the Sesodiás, a sept of the Gehlots), and the Kachwáha clan occupied the eastern tracts about Jaipur, now their chief's capital.

The march of Mahmúd's victorious army across the Rájput countries, though it temporarily overcame the Solankhyas, left no permanent impression on the clans. The latter were, however, seriously weakened by the celebrated feuds between the Solankhyas and the Chauháns, and between the latter and the Ráhtors of Kanauj, which give such a romantic colour to the traditions of the latter part of the 12th century. Nevertheless, when Shaháb-ud-dín began his invasions, the Chauháns fought hard before they were driven out of Ajmere and Delhi in 1193 A.D.; and Kanauj was not taken till the following year. Kutab-ud-dín garrisoned Ajmere and Anhilwárá; and the Musalmáns appear gradually to have overawed, if they did not entirely reduce, the open country. They secured the natural outlets of Rájputána, towards Gujarát on the south-west, and towards the valley of the Jumna on the north-east; and the effect was probably to press back the clans into the outlying Districts, where a more difficult and less inviting country afforded a second line of defence against the foreigner—a line which they have held successfully up to the present day.

Indeed (setting aside for the present the two Ját States of Bhartpur and Dholpur, and the Muhammadan Principality of Tonk), Rájputána may be described as the region within which the pure-blooded Rájput clans have maintained a sort of independence under their own chieftains, and have kept together their primitive societies ever since their principal

dynasties in Northern India were cast down and swept away by the Musalmán irruptions. And the existing capitals of the modern States indicate the positions to which the earlier chiefs retreated. Thus, one clan (the Bháttis) had at an early period founded Jaisalmer in the extreme north-west, having been driven across the Sutlej by the Ghaznivide conquerors; the Ráhtors settled down among the sands of Márwár or Jodhpur; the Sesodiás pushed inward from north-east and south-west, concentrating on the Mewár plateau behind the scarps of the Aravallis; while the Jáduns were protected by the hills and ravines that lie along the Chambal.

The process by which the Rájput clans were gradually shut up within the natural barrier of difficult country, which still more or less marks off their possessions, continued with varying fortune—their frontiers now receding, now again advancing a little—until the end of the 15th century. Early in the 13th century, the rich southern Province of Málwá was attached by the Musalmáns to the Delhi Empire; and at the beginning of the 14th century, Alá-ud-dín Khiljí finally exterminated the Rájput dynasties in Gujarát, which also became an imperial Province. When at length, with the decline of the Tughlak dynasty, independent Muhammadan kingdoms arose in Málwá and Gujarát, these powers proved more formidable to the Rájputs than even the Delhi Empire had been; and throughout the 15th century there was war between them and the clans.

For a short interval, at the beginning of the 16th century, came a brilliant revival of Rájput strength. The last Afghán dynasty at Delhi was breaking up, and Málwá and Gujarát were at war with each other, when there arose the famous Ráná Sanga of Mewár, chief of the Sesodiá clan. The talents and valour of this chief once more obtained for his race something like predominance in Central India. Aided by Medni Ráo, chief of Chanderi, he fought with distinguished success against both Málwá and Gujarát. In 1519 he captured the Musalmán King of Málwá; and in 1526, in alliance with Gujarát, he totally subdued the Málwá State, and annexed to his own dominion all the fine eastern Provinces of that kingdom, and recovered the strong places of the Eastern Marches. This was the time at which the power of the Rájputs was at its zenith, for Ráná Sanga was now not merely the chief of a clan, but the king of a country. The Rájput revival was, however, as short-lived as it was brilliant. A month before the capture of the capital of Málwá, Bábar, with his Mughals, had taken Delhi; and in 1527, Ráná Sanga, at the head of all the chivalry of the clans, encountered the invader at Fatehpur Sikri, when his army was utterly defeated after desperate fighting, and the Rájput power hopelessly shattered. Next year, Medni Ráo, with the flower of his clan, fell in the defence of Chanderi, which was sacked by Bábar. The hegemony of the Rájputs,

which passed to Máldeo Ráo, the Ráhtor chief of Jodhpur, was no longer that of a victorious empire. The clans, harassed first by the attacks of the Musalmán King of Gujarát, then by the Afghán Sher Sháh of Delhi, were finally either conquered, overawed, or conciliated by the genius of the great Akbar—all but the distant Sesodiá clan, which, however, submitted to Jahángír in 1616.

Akbar took to wife the daughters of two great Rájput houses. He gave the chiefs or their brethren high rank in his armies, sent them with their contingents to command on distant frontiers, and succeeded in attaching the Rájputs generally. Under the early Mughal Emperors, the chiefs constantly entered the imperial service as governors or generals — there were at one time 47 Rájput contingents — and the headlong charges of their cavalry became famous in the wars of the empire. Jahángír and Sháh Jahán were sons of Rájput mothers; and Sháh Jahán in exile was protected at Udaipur up to the time of his accession. Thus, whereas up to the time of Akbar, the Rájput clans had to a certain extent maintained their political isolation, though within limits that were always changing, from the end of the 16th century their chiefs became feudatories of the Empire—which is their natural and honourable relation to the paramount power in India.

In the family wars which resulted in the accession of Aurangzeb, the Rájputs were generally found on the side of their unfortunate kinsman Dárá; still, even Aurangzeb employed them in distant wars, and their contingents did duty at his capital. He was, however, too bigoted to retain undiminished the hold on them acquired by Akbar. Though one Rájput chief governed Kábul for him, while another commanded his armies in the Deccan, he is said to have had them both poisoned. Towards the end of his reign he made bitter, though unsuccessful, war upon the Sesodiás, and devastated parts of Rájputána; but he was very roughly handled by the united Ráhtors and Sesodiás, and he had thoroughly alienated the clans before he died.

If Aurangzeb's impotent invasion be excepted, it may be affirmed that, from Akbar's settlement of Rájputána up to the middle of the 18th century, the Rájput clans did all their serious warfare under the imperial banner in foreign wars, or in the battles between competitors for the throne of Delhi. When Aurangzeb died, the clans took sides as usual; and Sháh Alam, the son of a Rájput mother, was largely indebted for his success to the swords of his kinsmen. The obligations of allegiance, tribute, and military service to the Emperor, were undoubtedly recognised as defining the political status of the chief so long as an Emperor existed who could exact them. After the death of Aurangzeb, the Rájputs vainly attempted the formation of an independent league for their own defence, in the shape of a triple alliance between the three leading clans—the Sesodiá, the Ráhtor, and the Kachwáha; and this

compact was renewed when Nádír Sháh threw all Northern India into confusion. But the treaty contained a stipulation, that in the succession to the Ráhtor and Kachwáha chiefships, the sons born of a wife from the Sesodiás should have preference over all others; and this invidious preference was the fruitful source of disputes which soon split up the federation.

About 1756, the Maráthás got possession of Ajmere, being called in by one of the Ráhtor factions; and from this time Rájputána became involved in the general disorganization of India. The primitive constitution of the clans rendered them quite unfit to resist the professional armies of Maráthás and Patháns; and the Rájput States very nearly went down with the sinking Empire. The utter weakness of some of the chiefs, and the general disorder following the disappearance of a paramount authority in India, dislocated the tribal sovereignties, and encouraged the building of strongholds against predatory bands, the rallying of parties round petty leaders, and all the general symptoms of civil confusion. From dismemberment among rival adventurers, the States were rescued by the appearance of the English on the political stage of Northern India.

In 1803, all Rájputána, except the remote States of the north-west, had been virtually brought under the Maráthás, who exacted tribute, held cities to ransom, annexed territory, and extorted subsidies. Sindhia and Holkar were deliberately exhausting the country, lacerating it by ravages, or bleeding it scientifically by relentless tax-gatherers; while the fields had been desolated by thirty years' incessant war. Under this treatment, the whole group of ancient chieftainships was verging towards collapse, when Lord Wellesley struck in for the English interest. The victories of Generals Wellesley and Lake permanently crippled Sindhia's power in Northern India, and forced him to loosen his hold on the Rájput States in the north-east, with whom the English made a treaty of alliance against the Maráthás; Holkar, too, after various turns of fortune, was compelled in 1805 to sign a treaty which stripped him of some of his annexations in Rájputána. Upon Lord Wellesley's departure from India, the chiefs of Central India and Rájputána were left to take care of themselves; and the consequence was that the great predatory leaders plundered at their ease the States thus abandoned to them, and became arrogant and aggressive towards the British power. This lasted for about ten years, and Rájputána was desolated during the interval. The roving bands increased and multiplied all over the country into Pindári hordes, until in 1814 Amír Khán was living at free quarters in the heart of the Rájput States, with an army estimated at 30,000 horse and foot, and a strong force of artillery. The two principal Rájput chieftainships of Jodhpur and Jaipur had brought themselves to the brink of extinction by the

famous feud between the two rulers for the hand of a princess of Udaipur; while the plundering Maráthás and Patháns encouraged and strenuously aided the two chiefs to ruin each other, until the dispute was compromised upon the basis of poisoning the girl.

In 1811, Sir Charles Metcalfe, Resident at Delhi, reported that the minor chiefs urgently pressed for British intervention, on the ground that they had a right to the protection of the paramount power, whose obvious business it was to maintain order. At length, in 1817, the Marquis of Hastings was at last able to carry into action his plan for breaking up the Pindári camps, extinguishing the predatory system, and making political arrangements that should effectually prevent its revival. Lawless banditti were to be put down, the general scramble for territory was to be ended by recognising lawful governments once for all, and fixing their possessions, and by according to each recognised State British protection and territorial guarantee, upon condition of acknowledging our right of arbitration and general supremacy in external disputes and political relations. Accordingly, the Pindáris were put down, Amír Khán submitting and signing a treaty which constituted him the first ruler of the existing State of Tonk. By the end of 1818, all the Rájput States, except Bhartpur, had executed treaties with the paramount power. There was a great restoration of plundered Districts and rectification of boundaries. Sindhia gave up the Province of Ajmere to the British, and the pressure of the great Maráthá powers upon Rájputána was permanently withdrawn.

Since then, the political history of Rájputána has been comparatively uneventful. The great storm of the mutinies of 1857, though dangerous while it lasted, was short. The capture of the town of Kotah, which had been held by the mutineers of that State, in March 1858, marked the extinction of armed rebellion in the Province. The only serious disorders in Rájputána had been caused by mutinous mercenaries in the service either of the British Government or of the chiefs. There was no question of internal treason, or of plots for the subversion of chiefs or dynasties; and the country at large probably suffered little.

Population.—The following detailed returns of the population of Rájputána are confined to the Native States; Ajmere-Merwárá, although under the jurisdiction of the Governor-General's Agent for Rájputána, is strictly a British District. In exhibiting the total population under the jurisdiction of the Governor-General's Agent, in the table at the beginning of this article, Ajmere-Merwárá was necessarily included. But in dealing with the population of the Native States, which form the geographical area of Rájputána, it is expedient to exclude the British District of Ajmere-Merwárá. The Census of the Native States of Rájputána taken in 1881 was the first general enumeration of the

people attempted since the British took possession of the peninsula of India. That Census may be regarded, on the whole, as satisfactory. But owing to the repugnance among the Bhíls to being enumerated, no accurate Census could be taken of that tribe. The authorities had to be content with counting the Bhíl houses in some States, and allowing an average of four persons to each house.

The total population of the Native States of Rájputána in 1881, exclusive of the 166,343 Bhíls only enumerated by houses, was 10,102,049, of whom 5,461,493 were males and 4,640,556 females. The total area of the Native States of Rájputána was estimated at 129,750 square miles. The total number of occupied houses was returned at 2,101,451; and the number of persons to each house at 4·89. Average density of population, 79·14 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 16; total number of towns and villages, 30,001.

With regard to religion, Rájputána is eminently Hindu. The Census returned the Hindus as numbering 8,839,243; Muhammadans, 861,747; Jains, 378,672; Christians, 1294; Sikhs, 9; Pársís, 7; 'others' not specified (non-Hindu aborigines and wild tribes), 21,077.

Sub-divided into castes, the Hindus include:—Bráhmans, 906,463; Rájputs, 479,554; Maháj ans, 634,440; Chamárs, 567,098; Mínas, 427,672; Gújars, 402,709; Játs, 425,598; Ahírs, 130,653; Hindu Bhíls, 105,870; Dhakurs (Thákurs), 75,008; Balais, 61,530; Sondhias, 43,740; Katch, 19,118; and 'others,' 3,344,167.

Sub-divided into tribes, the Muhammadans consist of—Shaikhs, 120,110; Patháns, 70,242; Meos, 45,946; Mughals, 32,146; Sayyids, 24,755; and 'others,' 353,098.

No attempt could be made to collect any information regarding the non-Hindu or aboriginal castes and tribes of Rájputána, or to in any way classify the Christians. In the above figures, the caste and tribe tables for Jodhpur State have been omitted from the calculation, as the information was not furnished by the Jodhpur Darbár.

It is difficult to give any concise account that shall be quite accurate of the ethnical divisions of the population over a wide extent of country, especially where statistics are to a considerable extent wanting; but the outline is somewhat as follows:—In the Rájput States, the pure Rájput clans occupy the first rank; though by rigid precedence it would be taken by the Bráhmans, who are numerous and influential. The total number returned as Bráhmans was nearly a million in 1881. The Rájputs nowhere form a majority of the population; they are strongest, numerically, in the northern States and in Mewár. Their total number in 1881 was returned at nearly half a million. With the Bráhmans may be classed the peculiar and important caste of Chárans or Bháts, the keepers of secular tradition and of

the genealogies. Next in order follow the mercantile castes, mostly belonging to the Jain sect, some of them undoubtedly of Rájput extraction, though separated by difference of profession and of worship from the clans. Then come the principal cultivating tribes, such as the Játs (425,598) and Gújars (402,709).

After these may be mentioned the tribes of uncertain origin peculiar to Central India, who occupy the outlying tracts and the skirts of the open country, of whom the Mínas (427,672) and Mers are the best specimens. Most of these claim irregular descent by half-blood from Rájputs, while some of them are closely connected with the Bhíls; and they shade off, according as they are more or less settled down to cultivation and a quiet life, from industrious agriculturists into predatory tribal communities. The Meos (now converts to Islám), the Mers, and the Mínas are evidently allied tribes, whether by similarity of origin and way of life, or by remote descent from the same stock, is uncertain. Some reasons have been given for tracing the earliest habitations of the Mínas and Meos to the Indus valley and the Upper Punjab; and the Mers have been conjectured to be a relic of the Meds, an Indo-Scythian tribe from Central Asia.

Lastly, there are non-Aryan groups of pure Bhíls, inhabiting long stretches of wild and hilly tracts, where they are almost independent, holding together under their own petty chiefs and head-men, paying irregular tribute or rents to the chief of the State, or to the Rájput landowner upon whose estate they may be settled. There are also, of course, a good number of Bhíls, as of all other half-tamed tribes, who have mixed with the general population, and are to be found scattered among the villages on the outskirts of the wild country.

The geographical distribution of the Rájput clans is broadly as follows:—The Ráhtors are probably the most numerous of all; they greatly predominate in the north-west, in the country of Márwár, Bíkaner, and Jaisalmer, in the State of Kishengarh, and all about the central portion of Ajmere. In Jaisalmer, the Bháttis rule. In the north-east States is the Kachwáha clan, very strong in Alwar and in Jaipur; some districts in the north of Jaipur being altogether in the hands of the Shaikháwat sept of the Kachwáhas. The Chauháns, once famous in the history of the north-west of India, are now most influential in the eastern States, where the Hára sept has been long dominant; and the Deoras, another sept of the Chauháns, still hold Sirohi, while the Khíchis also belong to the same stock. In the north-west, the last trace of the ancient predominance of the Chauháns at Delhi is to be found in the petty chiefship of Nimrána, held by Chauháns who claim descent from Prithwi Ráj; and in the extreme north-west, the Ráo of Kusalgarh in Bánswárá is the head of a Chauhán colony.

All over Mewár and the north-western States of Rájputána, below the Aravallis, the Sesodiá clan predominates, their head being the Maháráná of Udaipur, the eldest family of the purest blood of the whole Rájput caste. Among other clans of high descent and historic celebrity which were once powerful, but have now dwindled in numbers and lost their dominion, may be named the Parihár, the Pramára, and the Solankhya.

The clans are, of course, the aristocracy of the country; and they hold the land to a very large extent either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. As united families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a ruling family (as distinguished from a caste) in all India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rájput stocks. The Rájput proper is very proud of his warlike reputation, and most punctilious on points of etiquette. The tradition of common ancestry has preserved among them the feeling which permits a poor Rájput yeoman to hold himself as good a gentleman as the most powerful landholder. As noticed further on (see *Land Tenures*), primogeniture exists. But the custom of equal division of inheritance is more or less in force among the Ráhtors of the Mallani country, among the Shaikháwat sept of the Kachwáhas, and in certain other tribes. The marriage customs are strictly exogamous, a marriage within the clan being regarded as incestuous; thus, each clan depends on the other clans for its wives, for, of course, no Rájput can take a wife elsewhere than from Rájputs.

The mercantile classes are strongest in the cities of the north, where are the homes of almost all the petty bankers and traders who have spread over Northern and Western India under the name of Márwárís. The number of these petty traders or Márwárís in Rájputána was 634,440 in 1881. Perhaps the Oswal section of the Jains, which had its beginning in Rájputána, is the wealthiest among the merchants; and many of the hereditary officials belong to the commercial castes.

Of the cultivating tribes not belonging to pure Rájput clans, the principal are the Játs and Gújars, north of the Aravallis, and along the borders towards the Punjab and the Jumna, from Bíkaner round to Bhartpur, and in Jaipur. The Ahírs, Lodhas, Káchhís, Málís, and Chamárs also cultivate widely in the eastern Districts. South of the Aravallis, we find the Kunbís and Sondias as cultivators, immigrants from Central and Southern India; and in the south-west corner, we meet with the Kolís, so common in Gujarát.

Muhammadans are numerous in the north-eastern and eastern States; and also in Ajmere, where is the shrine of one of the most

famous Musalmán saints in India. In the pure Hindu States of the west and south-west they are rare, perhaps rarest in Mewár; but in Márwár they have been from time to time influential. The special feature of Islám in Rájputána is to be found in the clans or indigenous tribes who have been converted to the faith; such are the Khánzádahs, the Kháimkhánis, the Meos, the Meráts, and the Sodhas.

The Khánzádahs, principally found in Alwar, and in the north of Jaipur, are descendants of a group of families of uncertain origin, who were the old rulers of MEWAT during the 16th century. Their principal chief fought on the Rájput side against Bábar in 1528. They are now numerically insignificant, and are not reckoned among the aristocracy. In social rank they are far above the Meos, and, though probably of more recent Hindu extraction, are better Musalmáns. They observe no Hindu festivals, and will not acknowledge that they pay any respect to Hindu shrines. But Bráhmans take part in their marriage contracts, and some Hindu marriage ceremonies are observed by them. Though generally as poor and ignorant as the Meos, they, unlike the latter, say their prayers and do not let their women work in the fields. No Khánzádahs now hold any *jágír* or rent-free villages. Some have emigrated eastward, and taken to trade in the Gangetic cities. Those, who have not abandoned the traditions of their clan, are often glad of military service. A few have enlisted in British regiments; and many have joined the service of the Alwar chief. There are 26 Khánzádah villages in Alwar, in most of which the proprietors themselves work in the field and follow the plough. No other settlements out of Alwar are known.

The Kháimkhánis, also most numerous in Alwar and Jaipur, were originally Chauhán Rájputs, converted to Islám. They are said to have formerly owned the tract of country now called Shaikháwati, but were afterwards dispossessed by Shekhjí, the founder of the Shaikháwat clan of Rájputs.

The Meos, a tribe who are very strong in Alwar and Bhartpur, have been known in India, according to the *Kutab Tawárikh*, for 850 years. They were originally Hindus, and became Muhammadans at the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní, in the 11th century. Their origin is obscure. They themselves claim descent from the Rájput races of Jádun, Kachwáha, and Tunwár. They may have some Rájput blood in their veins, but they are probably, like many other similar tribes, a combination from various stocks and sources. There is reason to believe them very nearly allied to the Mínas, who are a tribe of the same structure and species. The Meos are divided into 52 clans, the first six of which are identical in name, and claim the same descent as the first six clans of the Mínas. Intermarriage between

both was a rule till the time of Akbar, when, owing to an affray at the marriage festival of a Meo with a Mína, the custom was discontinued. Both Meos and Mínas were once notoriously predatory tribes. The Meos have a mixture of both Muhammadan and Hindu customs. They practise circumcision, *nika* marriage, and burial of the dead. Bráhmans take part in the formalities preceding a marriage, but the ceremony itself is performed by the *Kazí* or Muhammadan judge. Their village deities are the same as those of Hindus. Among Hindu customs, they observe the *Holí*, *Diwálí*, and other festivals. Their marriages never take place in the same *gôt*, and their daughters cannot inherit. They call their children indiscriminately by both Muhammadan and Hindu names. They are almost entirely uneducated, but have bards and musicians, to whom they make large presents. The dialect is harsh and unpolished. They are given to the use of intoxicating drinks, are very superstitious, and have great faith in omens. The dress of the men and women resembles that of the Hindus. Like the women of low Hindu castes, they tattoo their body. The men often wear gold ornaments, but the women are seldom or never allowed to have them. As agriculturists, Meos are inferior to their Hindu neighbours. Their women, whom they do not seclude, do more field-work than the men.

Meráts, a term which is generally used as synonymous with a Muhammadan Mer, is a patronymic derived from Mera, the common ancestor of the Kátáls and Goráts. Haráj, the grandson of Mera, became a convert to Islám in the reign of Aurangzeb, and is the progenitor of all the Kátál Meráts. Gora was brother of Haráj, and his descendants are Hindus. Among the Meráts there is a distinct tendency to socially assimilate with the orthodox followers of Islám, and to abandon ancient customs common to them with their non-Muhammadan brethren. They have abjured the flesh of the wild hog; they have begun to adopt *nika* marriage, to seclude their women, and to intermarry with persons within degrees prohibited by their ancient customs.

The peculiarity of the above Muhammadan bodies is that, while the ritual of Islám has been more or less successfully imposed upon them, they have maintained in structure the social institutions of a Hindu clan or family, and that the tribes especially have continued to regulate their marriages, not by the law of Islám, but by their own rules of genealogy and consanguinity. Up to very recently, their worship was polytheistic, and their primitive gods survived under various disguises.

One special element in the Rájputána population is that of the half-blood tribes. They are so called in this brief account of the different classes of the people, because they themselves invariably

claim descent from the pure Rájput clans by irregular marriages, and because their own society is framed on the model of the Rájput clan, while there is every probability that they really derive largely from a crossing between the Rájputs and the more primitive tribes whom the Rájputs overcame and superseded. As a body, however, these tribes seem to be mixed aggregations of all sorts of persons who have taken to an independent and predatory life in the wilder parts of the country.

Of these tribes, the most important is that of the Mínas, who inhabit several distinct tracts in different parts of Rájputána, and are also found sparsely scattered among the population in the neighbourhood of those tracts. Mínas were formerly the rulers of much of the country now held by Jaipur. The earliest annals of the Rájput conquests are full of traditions of the cruel and unscrupulous extermination of the people whose country they seized by force or fraud; and in the eastern States, places are still shown where some Mína Chief made his last stand, or was decoyed into massacre by the Rájput hero who founded his clan's dominions. The tracts now occupied by the Mínas in the interior of Rájputána are the holds and fortresses where they have found refuge. They are also found in the northern part of Jaipur and Alwar, where they are famous for organized robberies all over Northern India.

The Mínas of Jaipur and Alwar reckon themselves superior to the other groups of their tribe, neither intermarrying nor eating with them. This section of the tribe consists of two classes—*zamíndárs* or agriculturists, and *chaukídárs* or watchmen. The former are excellent cultivators, and are well behaved. The *chaukídárí* Mínas, though of the same tribe as the other class, are quite distinct. They consider themselves soldiers by profession, and somewhat superior to their agricultural brethren from whom they take, but do not give, daughters in marriage. Those of the *chaukídárí* Mínas who take to agriculture lose caste to some extent. These *chaukídárí* Mínas are famous marauders. They travel in bands, headed by a chosen leader, as far south as Haidarábád (Nizám's Dominions), where they commit daring robberies. They are the principal class which the Dakáiti Suppression Department has to watch. So notorious are they as robbers, that the late chief of Alwar, afraid lest they should corrupt their agricultural brethren, and desirous of keeping them apart, forbade their marrying, or even smoking or associating with members of the well-conducted class. In 1863, orders were issued placing the *chaukídárí* Mínas under surveillance; and subsequently, lists of them were made out, periodical roll-calls enforced in the villages, and absence without a leave-certificate punished. The Mínas still hold a good social position, as Rájputs will eat and drink from their hands,

and they are the most trusted guards in Jaipur. On every succession in Jaipur, a Mína performs the ceremony of *tika* or investiture of the new chief.

The wilder Mínas have their special habitation in three particular tracts. Of these, one is called the Kherár, a rugged country situated in the north-east corner of Mewár. They call themselves Purihar Mínas, claiming half-blood with the well-known Rájput Purihars. They are famous as savage and daring marauders. Zalím Singh, the Rájá of Kotah, carried fire and sword in their lands early in this century. In 1857–58 they committed great excesses, and were put down with much severity in 1860 by the Rájput Chiefs. They are lower in social standing than the Mínas of the north, and are much less Hinduized.

Farther southward again, in the south-east corner of Mewár, is another stretch of hill country and jungle called the Chappan. Its high lands are studded with Mína villages, lying within the great estates of Mewár nobles, whose orders they obey. These Mínas live in the most inaccessible parts among the hills; they never build regular fixed villages. Each homestead is complete in itself, consisting of several grass and wood huts for grain and cattle within a single enclosure. This tract needed an armed force to bring it to order 55 years ago, and is still one of the most difficult and troublesome in Central India.

Last come the Mínas in the south-west of Rájputána, who occupy the wild country in the north of Sirohi State, and are entrenched among the inaccessible spurs of the Aravalli hills. They cultivate least and plunder most, maintaining incessant guerilla warfare with the State authorities; and they occupy the lowest grade in the social scale, caring little for caste rules, and being ineligible for intermarriage with the other groups of Mínas.

The Mers or Mhairs form another tribe of mixed origin, claiming descent from Rájput chiefs who took Mína wives; and they are evidently connected with the Mínas. The country they inhabit is called Merwárá. They appear to have held their own in this tract from time immemorial, though attempts to subjugate them are on record. They gave great trouble to the Muhammadan governors of Ajmere, to the neighbouring Rájput chiefs, and to the Maráthás, until they were subdued, not without some sharp skirmishes, by British officers about 45 years ago. One section of the Mers, the Mewáts, is, as already stated, Muhammadan. According to the customs of the tribe, a sonless widow retains possession of her husband's property till she marries again or till her death. She can mortgage in order to pay her husband's debts, to discharge arrears of Government revenue, or to obtain funds for the expense of her daughter's marriage. Daughters do not inherit when there are sons alive. All sons inherit

equally. A relation of any age may be adopted. Sons by slave girls, who are numerous, are granted lands to cultivate, which they cannot transfer. The custom of widow marriage prevails. Much money is spent on funeral feasts.

There is a widely-spread tribe of professional thieves, which is by origin evidently nothing but an association for the purpose of robbery, and as yet lays little claim to any common descent, though it is, in a loose way, a distinct caste. These people are called Baorias north of the Aravallis, and Moghias south of the range, but they are understood to be one tribe under two names. To the north they are found mostly in Márwár, and to the south they are most numerous in the country round Nimbhera and Nimach. Formerly they were well known as mercenary soldiers, bold, hardy, and most licentious; and they took their share in the disorders at the beginning of this century. They eat all kinds of flesh, and drink liquor. These people pretend to a remote descent from Rájputs, and shape their internal society upon the model of a Rájput clan. The tradition is that, in the time of the kings of Delhi, a princess of Gujarát was sent in charge of a few Rájputs to wed the king then reigning. They halted one day in Márwár territory at a well. The princess thinking it beneath her dignity to have to go to her future husband, instead of him coming for her, resolved to destroy herself, and therefore jumped into the well and was drowned. Her escort feared either to go back and relate what had happened to her relatives, or to go on to Delhi and tell their story there, and therefore remained at the well. After they had exhausted the little money they had, they took to robbery, and were called by the people in the neighbourhood the Baorias, from 'Baori,' a well. They afterwards married women of other castes, and eat the flesh of animals forbidden to Rájputs, and were in consequence made outcastes by the Rájputs.

The religion of the Moghias is similar to that of the Hindus: they worship the same gods and observe the same funeral and marriage ceremonies. Those who adhere to all religious rites, etc., are called *Ujjal* or pure, those who do not are called *Bitla* or impure. They do not take life except in self-defence or to escape capture, when they do not hesitate to do so. Every one of the tribes, no matter how wealthy, always affects a miserable dress and manner of living. They invariably have houses outside the village or town where they reside. The houses are built in small enclosures, with a passage between each, and numerous outlets in the enclosure to admit the inhabitants to escape if an official, or any one likely to want them, is seen approaching. The Moghias have now been brought under the stringent provisions of the Criminal Tribes Act, and up to 1885, 6252 male adults had been entered on the register.

The only tribe in Rájputána that may be termed aboriginal is that of the Bhils (*q.v.*), who numbered in 1881 about 270,000 in all.

The towns of Rájputána have their special characteristics. The largest are the capitals of the principal States, which have usually grown up around the forts of the chiefs, in situations that, originally chosen for defence or retreat, are now striking and often picturesque. The Rájput capital is nearly always named after its founder. Its citadel is usually on a hill close above, or placed in some commanding position over against the town; and the chief's ancestral palace is sometimes within the fortified lines, sometimes lying below the stronghold, with ready access to it in case of need; while, here and there, a modern palace has been built apart from the fortress within the town. But the fortress and the palace, whether combined or separate, are the two conspicuous features of a Rájput town. The suburbs often contain gardens and stone pavilions, while country houses of the chiefs and nobles lie a little beyond; and the *chattris*, or domed cenotaphs erected where chiefs or men of mark have been burned after death, often with their wives and female slaves, are usually at a little distance. Jaipur, the most modern of the Rájput capitals, is also the largest; it is laid out with spacious streets, and the hereditary taste of the ruling family has decorated and improved it for generations. Jodhpur is a fenced city in the desert; and Bíkaner and Jaisalmer are towns of the same type, built upon islands of hard rock amid deep sand. Ajmere, Alwar (Ulwur), and Udaipur are all remarkable for picturesque beauty and for excellence of situation. Bhartpur, Tonk, Kotah, Búndi, and Jhálra Pátan are the other important places. The forts and castles of Rájputána are numerous, and often exhibit the best specimens of the architecture of this part of India. The most remarkable are Táragarh above Ajmere, Chitor, Kumalmer, and Gogunda in Mewár, Alwar (Ulwur), Jaipur, Khetri, Bhainsrorgarh, Mandalgarh, Indragarh, Jaisalmer, Bíkaner, Jodhpur, Búndi, Kotah, Gagron, and Rinthambor.

Religious Sects.—The vast majority of the population are Hindus, with a very strong infusion of Jainism. The Rájputs, though superstitious, are not remarkable either for devotion or for fastidiousness about caste rules and sacred personages. Of local sects most in vogue, may be mentioned the Dádu Panthis, whose head-quarters are in Jaipur State, to whom belong the armed Nágas; and the Rám Sanehi sect, which prevails in Alwar (Ulwur) and Mewár, with its head-quarters at Sháhpurá. Both these sects have a special book of precepts, in favour of which they reject all others, and a spiritual founder who transmits a special grace and insight divine to his chosen descendants. Secret societies are said not to be uncommon in the country; the obscene sect of the Vallabhacharayas have two shrines in Mewár. Astrology is

universally practised; and a professor of the occult art must be consulted at all critical conjunctures, political or social. The belief in witchcraft still strongly prevails.

Agriculture.—Westward of the Aravallis there is a good strip of soil along the banks of the Loni, which occasionally overflows, and on the subsidence of the waters an alluvial deposit remains which yields good crops of barley and wheat. Excluding the fertile portions of Márwár enclosed within the branches of the Loni, nearly the whole country to the north-west of this river, including most of Márwár, the States of Bíkaner and Jaisalmer, and the District of Shaikháwati, is a vast sandy tract. Water is far from the surface, and scarce. Irrigation from wells is impracticable, for not only is the supply of water too scanty to admit of it being used for this purpose, but also the depth of the wells usually exceeds 75 feet, the maximum at which well-irrigation has been found profitable in Jaisalmer and Bíkaner. The water in the wells is often from 300 to 500 feet below the surface. The people have thus to depend for their supply of grain entirely on the produce of the crops sown in the rainy season, which in this part of the country is of very uncertain character. When rain does fall, it sinks into the sandy soil and does not flow off the surface, so that a very light rainfall suffices for the crops.

The system of agriculture is simple, and only one crop is raised in the year. At the commencement of the rainy season, the sandhills are ploughed up by camels, and the seed is then planted very deep. After it has sprouted, a few showers bring the young crop to maturity. As the light camels of the desert are quick movers, and the ploughs are of trifling weight, each cultivator is able to put a large extent of ground under crop. The produce in a favourable season is much more than is necessary for the wants of the population; but, unfortunately, the means of stowing grain are not easily procurable, burnt earthen vessels for the purpose having to be brought from long distances; consequently, the surplus produce is often left on the ground to be eaten by cattle. The *karbi*, or *bájra* stalks, which make excellent fodder, are little needed in good seasons when rich grass is plentiful; and, generally speaking, neither *karbi* nor grass is cut or stacked as a stand-by for bad seasons.

Bájra (Pennisetum typhoideum) and *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius) are the only crops which are grown in the desert tracts. The former is planted as early as possible, even in May, if any rain fall in that month; the latter in August. The former takes three months, the latter six weeks, to ripen. Besides these cereals, large quantities of melons spring up, of which the Bíkaner melon is famous. These supply food for a considerable portion of the year, and, when abundant, are allowed to be plucked by any passer-by. Cattle, even, are allowed to feed on them. The seeds are dried and ground, and eaten with flour.

The main wealth of the desert lands of Márwár and Bíkaner consists in the vast herds of camels, horned cattle, and sheep which roam over their sandy wastes and thrive admirably in the dry climate. Camels and cattle are bred in such numbers that they supply the neighbouring Provinces. What are called and sold as Gujarát cattle are often in reality Márwár cattle of the Nagar breed, celebrated for their size and pace. The stock is yearly sold at great fairs. In Western Rájputána, camels are also bred in large quantities; and besides being ridden, and used as beasts of burden, they are employed in agriculture. The Bíkaner camel is the finest, swiftest, and handsomest in India. The Márwár camel is more enduring, but not the equal of the former in speed. The Jaisalmer camel is a dark, small, and ugly animal, but docile and the easiest of any in his paces. The sheep of Márwár and Bíkaner are exported in great numbers to Bombay and other markets. The endurance of the horses of Mallání is proverbial.

In other parts of Rájputána, south and east of the Aravallis, two crops are raised annually, and various kinds of cereals, pulses, and fibres are grown. The principal crops in the hilly tracts of Mewár, and in Dungarpur and Bánswárá, are Indian corn and oil-seeds for the *kharíf*, and grain, barley, and wheat for the *rabí* harvest. On the plateau near Nímach in the State of Partábgarh, the chief crops are *joár* for the *kharíf*, and opium, wheat, and *ál* for the *rabí*. The staple produce of Jháláwár is opium; nearly 10,868 *maunds* (or 400 tons) were exported in 1882–83, while 7943 *maunds* were imported, and 2438 *maunds* passed through the State. Kotah is a grain-producing country, in which artificial irrigation scarcely exists; the soil, being black mould (disintegrated trap), is retentive of moisture, and large quantities of wheat are grown for the spring harvest, and *joár* for the autumn harvest. The extensive plains of the Mewár plateau are fertile when irrigated; almost every village has its artificial lake or tank. Behind the retaining embankments, or in the beds of these tanks, and wherever there are wells, large crops of wheat are grown, and here and there cotton, opium, and sugar-cane. In 1882, the State of Mewár expended £23,862 on irrigation, the profits from the existing irrigation works in that year being £14,000. To the east of Ajmere, including Kishengarh, the southern half of Jaipur, Tonk, and Alwar (Ulwur) as far as Bhartpur, the soil is fertile though light, and produces crops of wheat, barley, cotton, *joár*, and opium. The District of Shaikháwati in Jaipur resembles in character of soil and productions the deserts of the west. Much of Dholpur possesses the physical characteristics of Karauli—rocky hills and ravines. Where these exist, cultivation is much straitened; but elsewhere, the crops grown are the same as those of the neighbouring tracts to the west.

Land Tenures.—The characteristic of land tenures in the Rájput

States proper, in the west and south-west particularly, is that a very great proportion of the land is held on freehold tenure by the kinsmen of the chief, and by other clans of Rájputs. The word 'freehold' is here used to denote the holding of a free man by service not unbecoming his birth, and upon payment of the customary share of the produce of the soil in which chief and clan are coparceners—the 'fruits of worship,' as it is devoutly expressed.

Here and there are also some assignments or grants of land in the nature of *jágírs* proper,—that is, the revenue has been allotted to certain persons as a convenient way of paying the estimated cost of civil or military establishment or other services. All large estates are held under the implied condition of keeping up the police within their borders, protecting traffic, preventing heinous crimes, and pursuing offenders hot-foot when the hue and cry is raised, or when the tracks of flying brigands are followed across the boundaries. In many parts of the country, the estate passes entire to the eldest son, the others being entitled only to maintenance; in other parts, the tendency to divide the land as the family increases and branches out is more marked; while in other parts, again, division among brothers is imperative. Of course, the partition of the freeholds is in proportion as the custom of sub-dividing the land among the clansmen may prevail. Taking all the Rájput States together, the extent of land thus held in cultivating freehold is large. In Karauli whole villages are held by clansmen, who pay nothing to their chief. The freehold tenures are most extensive in Márwár, Jaisalmer, Bíkaner, Jaipur, and in part of Mewár, a light quit-rent being usually paid. The smaller plots of freehold land are usually held on the *bhúm* tenure, which is a better title than any. The *Bhúmia* and his heirs hold for ever on condition of some particular service, such as the watch and ward of villages, guard of the roads, etc.; and their holdings are not, like those of the kinsmen and clansmen of a chief, portioned off on lots of the family domain, which might be resumed if the chief and his folk quarrelled. The freeholding classes are distinct from the mass of cultivating peasantry.

The cultivating tenures of the peasantry at large are not easy to define accurately, though their general nature is much the same throughout Rájputána, both in the *khálsa* villages (paying directly to the State) and in the great feudatory estates. The cultivator is understood to have a permanent hereditary right to his holding so long as he pays the rent demanded, and to evict a man is a hard measure; but in a country where the irresponsible exactions of the tax-collectors are held in check only by the scarcity of tenants, the precise strength of the tenure depends really on the balance between these two opposing considerations, the desire to squeeze the tenant, and the fear of losing him.

On the whole, it may be said that the demand for tenants pre-

dominates, and a good cultivator has a firm root in his fields, which can be mortgaged or sold, and which pass by inheritance. A distinction is recognised, naturally, between lands which have come to a cultivator by inheritance, or which he has himself cleared or improved, and lands which have changed hands recently, or which have been assigned in an ordinary farming way. The real point of importance, however, is, of course, not the nature of tenure, but the limitation of rent demand; and this is practically unfixed, except where English officers have prevailed upon a chief to accept and uphold a regular land revenue settlement. In rack-renting States, all particular tenures are loose and undefined; and though the village community, as a body, generally sticks to the township, yet between the rent-collector and the money-lender, the peasant is apt to sink into the condition of a predial serf rather held to, than holding by, the land.

There are, speaking broadly, no middle-men in Rájputána between the tax-collector and the rent-payer, though the head-man of a village often contracts for a fixed payment for a short term of years. The *pátel* and *patwárí* are merely the local agents in the villages for cultivating and collecting arrangements; they are paid by remissions of rent demand, but have no rights or solid status, and the village community, as an institution, is feeble and depressed. The revenue is assessed on an assumed proportion of the crop, this being taken usually in kind, but sometimes at a money valuation, varying from year to year, and arbitrarily calculated. In places a fixed rate is assessed upon the measured *bighá*, according to the kind of crop or upon the plough. But the rent-rate proper is often only a fraction of the real demand upon the cultivator, which is made up of sundry and manifold cesses.

After the freeholding classes, perhaps the strongest and most prosperous cultivating bodies are to be found in the Ját and Gújar villages in the north and north-west, where the peasant is occasionally a substantial farmer, and where large herds of cattle are kept.

Industrial Occupations.—Whilst the mass of the people is occupied in agriculture, in the large towns banking and commerce flourish to a degree beyond what might have been expected in so backward a country. In the north, the staple products for export are salt, grain, wool, and some cotton. In the south, the great article of export is opium, and secondly, cotton; the imports consisting of sugar, hardware, piece-goods, and the usual miscellaneous articles needed by a country with no manufactures on any scale. Salt is made very extensively in Jodhpur and Jaipur from the great salt-lakes, which are the most valuable possessions of the northern States, and in Bhartpur from brine wells. From the great plains north of the Aravallis, especially from the Shaikháwati country, comes wool; and from these pasture lands a great many sheep are driven annually to Bombay. Cotton is

grown in the midland and eastern districts; while the rich, well-watered black soils which send opium to Málwá are owned by Mewár and the south-eastern States, Kotah and Jháláwár in particular.

Of late years an unwonted depression in the opium trade has been complained of all over Rájputána. Although the trade is depressed and the exports are falling off, poppy cultivation is spreading, and the culture is nearly coextensive with irrigation. The falling off in the export may be estimated by the fact that only 2809 chests passed the scales at Udaipur in 1882–83, as against 4659 chests in 1881–82, a great decrease on the average weighing of the previous eleven years, which was 6550 chests. Of late, a species of inferior opium called Chota Battis is produced for home consumption, and is worth from £4 to £5 per 80 lbs. less than the superior drug. The opening of the railway has had the effect of extending the cultivation of the poppy.

The head-quarters of banking and exchange operations may be said to be Jaipur, the largest, most modern, and richest city of Rájputána; though the principal firms of Málwá and of the northern cities of British India have agencies in most of the towns. The employment of capital in Rájputána is becoming less productive, and is diminishing since the peculiar sources of profit formerly open have been disappearing. At the beginning of the present century, great firms often remitted goods or specie under the guard of armed companies in their own pay, and loans were made at heavy interest for the payment of armies or the maintenance of a Government. Now, railways and telegraphs are gradually levelling profits on exchange and transport of goods, while the greater prosperity and stability of the States, under the wing of the Empire, render them more and more independent of the financing bankers. Of course, there is an immense amount of money-lending to the peasantry.

The largest commercial fairs in the country are, for cattle, camels, and horses, at Pukár (Pushkar) near Ajmere, and at Tilwárá in Jodhpur State.

In manufactures, Rájputána has no speciality, unless the making of salt be included under this head. In Bíkaner, fine woollen cloth is woven; and leather-working is successfully carried on in most of the northern States. In the finer and more artistic manufactures, however, Rájputána takes a high place. The enamel workers of Jaipur produce beautiful articles by a process of which the secret is unknown; in Partábgarh, a peculiar enamel of gold is worked on glass; while at Alwar and some other capitals, the goldsmiths and silversmiths have acquired superior skill in workmanship and design, under the patronage of the native Courts.

Climate and Hygiene.—The rainfall is very unequally distributed

throughout Rájputána. The western side of the country comes very near the limits of that part of Asia which belongs to the 'rainless district of the world;' though even on this side, the south-west winds bring annually a little rain from the Indian Ocean. In Western Rájputána —that is, in Jaisalmer, Bíkaner, and the greater part of Márwár—the annual fall scarcely averages more than 14 inches, as the rain-clouds have to pass extensive and heated tracts of sand before reaching these plains, and are emptied of much of their moisture upon the high ranges in Káthiáwár and the nearer slopes of the Aravallis. In the south-west, which is more directly reached, and with less intermediate evaporation, by the periodical rains, the fall is much more copious; and although for the 22 years ending 1881 the average at Mount Abu has been 64 inches, it sometimes exceeds 100 inches. But except in these south-west highlands of the Aravallis, the rain is most abundant in the south-east of Rájputána. The southern States, from Bánswárá to Jháláwár and Kotah, get not only the rains from the Indian Ocean, which sweep up the valleys of the Narbadá and Mahi rivers across Málwá to the countries about the Chambal, but also the last of the rains which come up from the Bay of Bengal in the south-east; and this supply occasionally reaches all Mewár. In this part of the country, if the south-west rains fail early, the south-east rains usually come to the rescue later in the season; so that the country is never subjected to the extreme droughts of the north-western tracts. The rainfall in 1882 at Bánswára was 42·4 inches; at Jháláwár, 34 inches; and at Kotah, 31·67 inches. On the other hand, the northern part of Rájputána gets a scanty share of the winter rains of North India, while the southern part usually gets none at all, beyond a few soft showers about Christmas. In the central Districts, round Ajmere and towards Jaipur, the periodical supply of rain is very variable. If the eastern winds are strong, they bring good rains from the Bay of Bengal; whereas if the south-west monsoon prevails, the rain is comparatively late and light. Sometimes a good supply comes from both seas, and then the fall is larger than in the eastern Districts; but it is usually much less. The average rainfall for 19 years ending 1881 has been at Ajmere, 22·5 inches (26 inches in 1882); and at Jaipur for 15 years ending 1881, 23·78 inches (24·46 inches in 1882). In the far north of Rájputána, the wind must be very strong and the clouds very full to bring any appreciable supply from either direction.

It may be said shortly, that from Bíkaner and Jaisalmer in the north-west, to Partábgarh and Kotah in the south-east, there is a very gradually increasing rainfall, from 10 to about 60 inches, the quantity increasing very rapidly after the Aravallis have been crossed. Statistics are not always trustworthy; but the subjoined table gives the average rainfall in recent years at certain places, which, being wide apart, may

afford an indication of the state of the mountainous districts, and thus generally of the whole tract.

TABLE ILLUSTRATIVE OF THE RAINFALL OF RAJPUTANA, DIVIDED BY THE ARAVALLI HILLS INTO THREE SECTIONS.

Section of Country.		Sub-division.	Station.	Number of Years taken, ending 1881.	Average Rainfall in Inches.
I.	Eastern or fertile	North . . .	Bhartpur . .	14	24·8
		South . . .	Jhálra Pátan .	11	38·4
II.	Central or hilly	Central . . .	Ajmere . . .	19	22·5
		South . . .	Mewár . . .	8	26·9
III.	Western or barren	North . . .	Bíkaner . . .	4	14·5
		South . . .	Jodhpur . .	8	13·8
IV.	Exceptional elevation, 4000 feet	South . . .	Abu	22	64

In the summer, the sun's heat is much the same all over the Province, being, except in the high hills, great everywhere; in the north-west, very great. Hot winds and dust-storms are experienced more or less throughout; in the sandy half-desert tracts of the north they are as violent as in any part of India, while in the southerly parts they are tempered by hills, verdure, and water. In the winter, the climate of the north is much colder than in the lower districts, with hard frost and ice on the Bíkaner borders; and from the great dryness of the atmosphere in these inland countries, the change of temperature between day and night is sudden, excessive, and very trying. The heat, thrown off rapidly by the sandy soil, passes freely through the dry air, so that at night water may freeze in a tent where the thermometer marked 90° F. during the day. The following thermometrical readings relate to the year 1882:—Mount Abu (max. 76·9° F., min. 62°); Dísa (max. 84° F., min. 57°); Erinpura (max. 92° F., min. 75°); Ajmere (max. 92° F., min. 34°); Nasirábád (max. 93° F., min. 80°); Jaipur (max. 95° F., min. 70°); Alwar (max. 86° F., min. 64°); Bíkaner (max. 85° F., min. 70°); Udaipur (mean, 81° F.); Kotah (mean, 80° F.); Deoli (mean, 76° F.); and Tonk (mean, 78° F.).

The influence of these climatic conditions upon the general health may be shortly noticed. Among the climatic characteristics are an irregular, and in some parts a very scanty, rainfall; excessive dry heat during one season of the year, and great variation of temperature dur in

another; vast sandy tracts in the north-west, an immense extent of salt deposit, and a water-supply in parts very deficient, brackish, not good for drinking, and sometimes failing altogether. The epidemic diseases which might be expected, and which actually do prevail, are principally of the paroxysmal or malarious type. Cholera visitations occur most virulently in the eastern States; for the sparsely populated and semi-desert nature of the western tracts, over which the winds travel freely, prevents the spread of cholera in that direction. The scanty and unwholesome nature of the water-supply, and the comparative poorness of the grain—*bájra* (Holcus spicatus)—which forms the staple food of the people in the north-west, give rise to many dyspeptic maladies, and also to skin diseases. But the most formidable enemies of human life in Northern Rájputána are the frequently recurring dearths caused by failure of the always uncertain rainfall, which periodically desolate the country. Within the last thirty years, two very serious famines—in 1848–49, and in 1868–69—have deeply affected the whole condition of the people; the second famine was intensified by the ravages of locusts, which breed in the deserts by myriads. Of late years, important sanitary improvements have been effected in the cities of Udaipur, Alwar, Tonk, and Jaipur.

Of vital statistics, there are yet none for Rájputána as a whole; though some records have been made in Ajmere which indicate a very low death-rate. Notwithstanding its many drawbacks, and excepting some towns urgently needing sanitary reforms, Rájputána may be reckoned one of the healthiest parts of India, at least for natives. The total number of dispensaries in the Native States of Rájputána was 64 in December 1882. Of the patients treated, 18 per cent. were suffering from abscesses, boils, and other skin diseases; 17 per cent. from malarial fever and spleen diseases; 6 per cent. from respiratory diseases; and 4 per cent. from bowel diseases. Cholera annually causes a large mortality, and small-pox annually recurs. The number of persons vaccinated was 51,826 in 1872; and 105,642 in 1882.

Three military bodies are maintained in Rájputána—the Merwárá Battalion, the Deoli Irregular Force, and the Mewár-Bhíl Corps. In the last two, Mínas and Bhíls are chiefly enlisted. The Merwárá Battalion numbers 600 men.

Education is reported to be making fair progress. The Mayo College at Jaipur had 64 pupils in 1882, and an income of £2900 in the same year. Female education is neglected throughout the States.

Rájsháhí.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 23° 49′ and 27° 12′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 1′ 50″ and 89° 55′ 30″ E. long. It comprises the seven Districts of DINAJPUR, RAJSHAHI, RANGPUR, BOGRA, PABNA, DARJILING, JALPAIGURI, all of which see separately.

The Division is bounded on the north by the independent States of Sikkim and Bhután; on the east by Goalpárá District, Kuch Behar State, the Gáro Hills, Maimansingh and Dacca Districts; on the south and south-west by the Ganges or Padma river, separating it from Faridpur, Nadiyá, and Murshidábád Districts; and on the west by Maldah and Purniah Districts, and the independent kingdom of Nepál. Area, 17,428 square miles. Population (1872) 7,380,777; (1881) 7,733,775, namely, males 3,925,710, and females 3,808,065, showing a total increase of 352,998, or 4·78 per cent., in nine years. The greatest increase was shown in the thinly populated Districts of Dárjíling and Jalpáiguri, partly due to defective enumeration in 1872, and partly to immigration caused by the great development of the tea industry of late years. Number of towns 27, and of villages 28,827; number of houses, 1,285,874, namely, occupied 1,254,164, and unoccupied 31,710. Average density of population, 443·7 persons per square mile, varying from 125·7 per square mile in Dárjíling, to 710·2 per square mile in Pabná. Number of towns and villages per square mile, 1·66; persons per town or village, 268; number of houses per square mile, 73·8; persons per occupied house, 6·2. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years, males 1,618,022, and females 1,494,299; total children, 3,112,321, or 40·2 per cent. of the population of the Division: 15 years and upwards, males 2,307,688, and females 2,313,766; total adults, 4,621,454, or 59·8 per cent.

Religion.—The bulk of the population are Muhammadans, the faith of Islám being professed by 4,885,165, or 63·1 per cent. of the total population. Hindus number 2,818,858, or 36·5 per cent.; Buddhists, 19,379; Christians, 1806; Jains, 564; Brahmos, 22; Sikhs, 3; Jews, 2; and 'others,' chiefly non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 7976. The total aboriginal population by descent, however, is returned at 1,240,062, or 16 per cent. of the total population. The most numerous of these are the Kochs, now completely Hinduized, and numbering 1,113,933. Though generally recognised as a low caste of Hindus, many of the higher class of Kochs assert a high religious rank and style themselves Rájbánsís, or of the royal line of Kuch Behar, the Rájá of which is a Koch, for whom the Bráhmans have discovered a divine ancestry. The other Hinduized aboriginal tribes include the Bhumij, 7818, and the Bhuiyá, 2121, who are all Hindus. Santáls number 8806, of whom 7360 are returned as Hindus, and 1446 as non-Hindus. The other aboriginal castes number 107,384, and are almost all Hindus by religion.

Among the orthodox Hindus, Bráhmans number only 70,886; Rájputs, 14,891; Káyasths, 68,400; Baniyás, 43,331; and Bábhans, 6905. The lower or Súdra castes include—Kaibartta, 176,460; Chandál, 139,181; Tior, 135,254; Jaliyá, 84,103; Hari, 58,714; Napit, 55,799;

Sunrí, 49,646; Goálá, 39,036; Kumbhár, 33,271; Bágdí, 32,154; Madak, 30,933; Lohár, 29,037; Telí, 28,162; Tántí, 26,771; Chamár, 24,054; Barhai, 22,936; Jugi, 20,179; Kurmí, 13,460; Kahár, 12,152; Málí, 11,757; Mallah, 8830; Dhobí, 8684; Kapálí, 8695; Sadgop, 7517; Dom, 7216; Dosádh, 7056; and Baruí, 6856. Caste-rejecting Hindus are returned as numbering 93,212, of whom 91,668 are Vaishnavs.

The Muhammadan population according to sect are divided into—Sunnís, 4,739,293; Shiás, 85,259; Wahábís, 863; and unspecified, 59,750. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Dárjiling District, and the Jains are almost equally divided between Rangpur and Pabná. The Christian community consists of 841 Europeans, 5 Americans, 4 Australians, 4 Africans, 153 Eurasians, 721 Natives, and 78 'others.' They are thus classified—Protestant, sect unspecified, 193; Church of England, 681; Roman Catholic, 252; Church of Scotland, 156; Baptist, 196; and 'others,' 328.

Town and Rural Population.—The principal towns in the Rájsháhí Division are SIRAJGANJ, population (1881) 21,037; RAMPUR BEAULEAH, 19,228; PABNA, 15,267; RANGPUR, 13,320; DINAJPUR, 12,560; BARAKHATA, 11,393; BHOGDABARI, 10,892; and DIMLA, 10,503. There are also 17 minor towns with between five and ten thousand inhabitants, containing an aggregate population of 123,079. The total urban population thus disclosed, therefore, amounts to 237,279, or only 3·07 per cent. of that of the whole Division. Seven towns are municipalities, with a population of 120,513 souls. Total municipal income (1883–84), £23,195, of which £11,019 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9¾d. per head of municipal population. Of the 28,854 towns and villages in the Rájsháhí Division, 17,778 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 7363 from two to five hundred; 2572 from five hundred to a thousand; 909 from one to two thousand; 149 from two to three thousand; 58 from three to five thousand; and 25 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population under the following six principal headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 56,931; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 105,144; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 128,226; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 1,871,495; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 226,550; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all general labourers and male children, 1,537,364.

Administration.—For administrative, fiscal, and police purposes, the seven Districts of the Rájsháhí Division are further split up into 15 Sub-divisions and 74 police circles (*thánás*). The Sub-divisional

system has not yet been introduced into Bogra and Dinájpur Districts. The whole is under the direct supervision of a Commissioner, subordinate to whom are 29 civil judges and 52 stipendiary magistrates of all grades. The six main items of Government revenue in 1883–84 aggregated £723,807, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £492,619; excise, £64,633; stamps, £104,976; registration, £6405; road cess, £44,155; and municipal taxes, £11,019. The land revenue is derived from 5437 separate estates, and is paid by 30,956 registered proprietors; average payment from each estate, £90, 12s., or by each proprietor, £15, 18s. 3d. The total regular police force in 1883 numbered 2489, of whom 264 were employed on town or municipal duty, maintained at a total cost of £48,174. There is also a village watch or rural police force, consisting in 1883 of 17,331 *chaukídárs*, and maintained by the villagers and landholders at an estimated cost in money or lands of £69,827.

The principal educational institutions are the College and Madrasa at Rámpur Beauleah, and a *zilá* school at the head-quarters of each District; the Doveton College and St. Paul's School at Dárjíling, and a school at Karsiang, the last three being for European or Eurasian boys. The total number of inspected primary schools in the Division in 1883–84 was 3319, attended by 79,974 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 98,630 boys and 3825 girls as under instruction. There were also 201,831 males and 6266 females returned in the same year as able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical relief is afforded by 37 hospitals and dispensaries, which were attended in 1883 by 2014 in-door and 121,298 out-door patients. The total number of registered deaths in 1883 amounted to 171,436, or a death-rate of 22·17 per thousand of the population. [For further particulars and details, see the separate District articles under the headings DINAJPUR, RAJSHAHI, RANGPUR, BOGRA, PABNA, DARJILING, and JALPAIGURI.]

Rájsháhí.—British District occupying the south-western corner of the Rájsháhí Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 3′ and 24° 59′ N. lat., and between 88° 20′ 45″ and 89° 23′ 30″ E. long., the Ganges river forming the continuous southern boundary. Area, 2361 square miles. Population (1881) 1,338,638. Bounded on the north by Dinájpur and Bográ; on the east by Bográ and Pabná; on the south by the Ganges and Nadiyá District; and on the west by Maldah and Murshidábád. The administrative headquarters are at RAMPUR BEAULEAH on the Ganges, which is also the residence of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí Division.

Physical Aspects.—Rájsháhí District presents the usual appearance of a recent deltaic formation, being one uniform alluvial plain, seamed with old river beds and studded with wide marshes. The general level

of green paddy-fields is only broken by the raised village sites, and the groves of trees in which the villages are embowered. In the north-west, bordering on the Districts of Maldah and Dinájpur, is a small tract of comparatively undulating ground, where the soil is a stiff red clay and the low jungle of brushwood is yet unreclaimed. Towards the east, the marshes increase in number and size, until they merge in the great Chalan *bíl* on the District boundary.

The river system is composed of the network of streams and water-courses, which anticipate the confluence of the main channels of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. The Ganges itself only fringes the southern boundary of the District, from below its junction with the Mahánandá, which latter river also borders the District for a few miles. Its two most important offshoots are the Narad and Barál, which finally mingle their waters with those of the Atrái. The chief representatives of the Brahmaputra system are the Atrái and Jamuná, both navigable throughout the year for small cargo boats. The drainage of Rájsháhí District is not carried off by means of its rivers, but through the chains of marshes and swamps, which lie for the most part below the level of the river banks. The Chalan *bíl* is, in fact, a great reservoir for the surplus water-supply of the whole surrounding country. It has open connections with all the rivers and watercourses, which here lose their identity; and during the rains it swells till it covers a total area of about 120 square miles. The discharge is from the southern extremity into the Brahmaputra. No artificial canals exist in Rájsháhí, and none are needed. Embankments have been erected to protect the station of Rámpur Beauleah, which is exposed to the full force of the Ganges floods.

Reclamation of river-banks and marshes, with the object of cultivating the finer varieties of rice and other crops, is only carried on to a very slight extent in Rájsháhí. A late Collector states that the marshes in which reeds grow indigenously, and the coarse *boro* rice is cultivated, are very profitable in their present state, and he is doubtful whether their reclamation would increase the value of the land. Long-stemmed rice, which grows with the rise of the water to a height of 20 feet or upwards, is extensively cultivated in the low-lying lands and swamps. Reeds and canes grow wild in almost all the marshes, but are not cultivated.

No revenue-yielding forests are situated in Rájsháhí. A large portion of the north-western angle is covered with brushwood, interspersed with occasional trees, and a small amount of charcoal is made there by Dhángars—an aboriginal tribe from the western Districts of Bengal. The jungle products consist of a little honey and beeswax collected by Dhángars. There are no large uncultivated pasture-grounds in the District, nor does any class of the population live by pasturing cattle in the jungle.

Wild Animals.—Among wild beasts, tigers are to be found, especially in the country around the Chalan *bíl*, and in the jungle tract in the north-west bordering on Maldah; but they are nowhere numerous. Leopards are abundant and destructive. A few herds of wild buffaloes are also found. Bears and wolves do not exist in the District. Among smaller animals are the tiger-cat, civet-cat, fox, jackal, hog-deer, and wild hog. The principal game birds met with in the District are snipe, teal, many species of wild duck, for which the Chalan *bíl* is a great place of resort; the francolin or black partridge, a few pea-fowl, the floriken, etc. Fish abound in all the rivers and tanks, and nearly all the rural population engage in fishing to a greater or less extent. It has been estimated that the value in the fisheries in the Ganges alone, within Rájsháhí District, is about £20,000 a year.

History.—Rájsháhí presents a typical example of the process by which a native *zamíndárí* has been moulded into a British District. When the East India Company obtained possession of the *díwání* or financial administration of Bengal in 1765, the wealthiest landholder with whom they were brought into direct relations was the Bráhman Rájá of Náttor, Rámján, the first of the present family. His official position was not of old standing, for it only dated from 1725; but the purity of his caste, his lavish charity, and the immense area of his revenue collections, caused him to be regarded as one of the first Hindus in the Province. His estate was known as Rájsháhí; and the same name was adopted for the British District, whose original boundaries were conterminous with the estate. In those days Rájsháhí seems to have extended from Bhágalpur on the west to Dacca on the east, and to have included a large sub-division called Níj Chaklá Rájsháhí, on the south bank of the Ganges, which stretched across Murshidábád and Nadiyá as far as the frontiers of Bírbhúm and Bardwán. The total area was estimated at 12,909 square miles, or about five times the size of the present District; and the land revenue was *sikká* Rs. 2,702,400, or £292,760. The territory is thus described by Mr. J. Grant, in his *Analysis of the Finances of Bengal*, dated 1786:—'Rájsháhí, the most unwieldy, extensive *zamíndárí* in Bengal, or perhaps in all India; intersected in its whole length by the great Ganges or its lesser branches, with many other navigable rivers and fertilizing waters; producing within the limits of its jurisdiction at least four-fifths of all the silk, raw or manufactured, used in or exported from the Empire of Hindustán, with a superabundance of all the other richest productions of nature and art to be found in the warmer climates of Asia, fit for commercial purposes; enclosing in its circuit, and benefited by the industry and population of, the overgrown capital of Murshidábád, the principal factories of Kasímbázár, Beauleah, Kumár-khálí, etc.; and bordering on almost all the other

great provincial cities, manufacturing towns, and public markets of the *subah* or Governorship.'

But the necessities of British administration soon introduced a series of changes, which led to the gradual breaking up of this great District. On the one hand, it was found that the power or the disposition of the Rájá was unequal to the duty of collecting promptly the land-tax; and, on the other hand, the demands of civil and criminal justice became too pressing to be satisfied from a single centre. The records of these early times are full of two classes of complaints, referring to constant arrears of revenue, and to the general disturbed condition of the country. Unfortunately, also, for the Náttor family, the estate fell at this time under the management of a woman, the celebrated Rání Bhawání, whose charitable grants of rent-free land permanently impoverished the ancestral possessions. The Government was compelled to take the collections out of her hands; and for a succession of years the *zamíndárí* was either held *khás*, *i.e.* under direct management, or farmed out to revenue contractors. At the Decennial Settlement in 1790, the adopted son of the Rání was permitted to engage for the whole District, at a permanent assessment of *sikká* Rs. 2,328,101, or £252,211. The strict regulations, however, which were then introduced for the recovery of revenue arrears by sale of the defaulter's estate were constantly called into requisition against the Rájá. Portion after portion of his hereditary property was put up to auction, and knocked down either to strangers from Calcutta, or to the dependants whom his own laxity had enriched. At the present time, the Náttor family only ranks third or fourth in Rájsháhí in respect of wealth, while all the outlying estates have been irretrievably lost.

Meanwhile, a second set of circumstances was tending to dissolve the integrity of the original District. At first, the attempt was made to administer justice through a single Collector-Judge and Magistrate, with two Assistants, one stationed at Murádbágh near Murshidábád, and the other at the local capital of Náttor. The first change took place as early as 1793, when the extensive tract lying south of the Ganges was taken from the parent District, and divided among the adjoining jurisdictions of Murshidábád, Nadiyá, and Jessor. This transfer left to Rájsháhí the irregular triangle lying at the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, with those two rivers as its natural boundaries. But complaints of the frequency of crime in parts remote from the central authority still continued to force themselves upon the notice of Government, and it was recognized that the evil could only be remedied by the creation of new administrative Districts. In 1813 the present District of Maldah was constituted out of a neglected tract, towards which Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Purniah each contributed their share. Bográ was formed in a similar manner in 1821; and in 1832 the limits of

Rájsháhí were finally fixed very much at their present lines, by the erection of Pabná and the adjoining police circles into an independent jurisdiction. The only marks of its former pre-eminence that Rájsháhí now retains are to be found in the fact that remote estates in other Districts still exercise the privilege of paying their land revenue into the parent treasury, and in the preservation of the old name for the Commissionership or Division of Rájsháhí.

Population.—Various attempts were made in early times to estimate the population. In 1784, when the District was at its largest, the number was put at 2,000,000 souls; in 1801, after the separation of the trans-Gangetic tract, at 1,500,000. In 1834, when the size of the District was probably not very different from what it is at present, an official enumeration showed a total of 1,064,965; and a more exact Census two years later raised the number to 1,121,745. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 1,310,729 persons, on an area corresponding with that of the present District (2361 square miles). The last Census in 1881 returned the population at 1,338,638, showing a slight increase of 27,909, or 2·14 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881. This trivial advance denotes a stagnant population, and an absence of immigration. The decline of the silk manufacture has gradually driven the population from the west and south of the District, where the mulberry tree was grown in large quantities, to the north-east, where the increasing value of the rice crop, coupled with the improvement of the soil from the gradual silting up of the Chalan *bíl*, has given a stimulus to agriculture.

The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2361 square miles; number of towns 3, and of villages 5156; number of houses, 233,165, namely, occupied 224,678, and unoccupied 8487. Total population, 1,338,638, namely, males 660,226, and females 678,412. Average density of population, 259 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 2·19; persons per town or village, 259; houses per square mile, 98·7; persons per occupied house, 5·96. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, males 282,028, and females 259,912; total children, 541,940, or 40·5 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 378,198, and females 418,500; total adults, 796,698, or 59·5 per cent.

Religion.—In the religious classification, Muhammadans are returned as numbering 1,049,700, or 78·4 per cent.; Hindus, 288,749, or 21·6 per cent.; Christians, 121; Buddhists, 55; Jains, 4; Jews, 2; and 'others,' 7.

It was one of the surprises first revealed by the Census of 1872, that the Musalmáns constitute more than three-fourths of the inhabitants. By sect they are returned as under—Sunnís, 1,040,997; Shiás, 5459;

and unspecified, 3244. There can be no doubt that in Rájsháhí, as in the rest of the Gangetic delta, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent, and that on the Muhammadan invasion of Bengal, the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. The Census Report shows the non-Muhammadan aboriginal population as numbering 20,184, all of whom, except 7, are returned as Hindus. The Muhummadans almost entirely belong to the cultivating class, and engage little in trade. It is stated that Faráizí fanaticism is not very prevalent among them, and that at the present day Islám gains no proselytes from the Hindus.

Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 16,523, including many of the largest landholders; Rájputs, 1233; Káyasths, 8378; and Baniyás, 3732. Among the Súdra or lower Hindu castes (many of which contain a large aboriginal element), by far the most numerous is the Kaibartta, with 63,134 members; the despised Chandál comes next with 29,792; followed by the Jaliyá, 13,774; Goálá, 9273; Nápit, 8462; Kumbhár, 6991; Telí, 6284; Sunrí, 6252; Chamár, 5709; and Lohár, 5119. Caste-rejecting Hindus (Vaishnavs) number 17,081.

The small Christian population consists of 40 Europeans and Americans, 2 Eurasians, 71 Natives, and 8 'others.' The native Christians include 34 converts in connection with the Presbyterian Mission at Rámpur Beauleah. The Bráhma Samáj has a comparatively numerous following among the Government officials at Beauleah, who have built for themselves a substantial meeting-house. At the same town there is also a wealthy community of Jain merchants.

Town and Rural Population.—The population is almost entirely rural. Only three towns are returned in the Census Report of 1881 as each containing more than 5000 inhabitants—RAMPUR BEAULEAH, population 19,228; NATTOR, 9094; and PATIYA, 6249; showing a total urban population of 34,571, or 2·6 per cent. It is noticeable that in these towns the Muhammadans are considerably below the general proportion. The only municipalities are Rámpur Beauleah and Náttor. Municipal income (1883–84), £2709, of which £2480 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 8⅜d. per head of the population (29,118) within municipal limits. The people show no tendency whatever to gather even into large villages. Godágári on the Ganges, and Náogáon on the Jamuná, conduct a considerable river traffic; Lálpur, also on the Ganges, is the centre of a flourishing industry in jewellery and brass-ware; and several other places have local importance as the sites of frequented temples and mosques. Of the 5159 towns and villages in the District, 2926 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1603 from two to five hundred; 515

from five hundred to a thousand; 103 from one to two thousand; 6 from two to three thousand; 3 from three to five thousand; and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

The building materials used in the construction of the dwelling-houses, both of shopkeepers and cultivators, consist, in the rural parts, simply of bamboos for the uprights and rafters, straw mats or reeds for the walls, thatching grass, and a little string. In the towns and larger villages, however, almost all the respectable shopkeepers have brick houses; and even those in poorer circumstances have tiled roofs. Each house consists of as many rooms as there are married members of the family, besides a cooking shed, cow shed, rice-husking shed, and a store-room, which is also used for the reception of guests, and as a sleeping apartment for the unmarried male members of the family The food consumed in the household of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of rice, pulse, fish, vegetables, fruit, oil, salt, milk, clarified butter (*ghí*), curds, sugar, and some sweetmeats. That of a cultivator in ordinary circumstances consists of the same, with the exception of milk, *ghí*, sugar, and sweetmeats. The estimated cost of living for a middle-sized family of the cultivating class is returned at about 15s. per month. This represents the cost which would have to be incurred if the articles had to be purchased in the market. The actual cost, however, is much less, as the cultivator grows rice and vegetables for his own consumption, and also catches most of the fish consumed.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returns the male population under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 10,379; (2) domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 14,635; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 27,055; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 299,797; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 42,687; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 265,673.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands, forms from 70 to 90 per cent.; the *áus* or early crop, grown on high lands, from 5 to 20 per cent.; the *boro* or marsh crop is comparatively insignificant. In addition, wheat, barley, and Indian corn are grown to a small extent; and various pulses and oil-seeds are raised from the *áus* rice-fields during the cold season. The crops grown in connection with European enterprise are indigo and mulberry for silk-worms, but both are now on the decline. In 1872, when the demand for jute was at its highest, the area under this fibre was about 14,000 acres, with an out-turn of more than 150,000 cwts. In the extreme north of the District there is a small tract on which is grown the *gánjá* (Cannabis sativa), which supplies the smokers of this drug throughout

a great part of India. No adequate reason is assigned for the extremely limited nature of this cultivation. The total area under *gánjá* is estimated at 400 acres, and the annual produce at 7000 cwts., valued at £20,000, which is nearly all exported. The demand for the drug is kept down by repeated augmentations in the rate of the excise duty.

Manure is but little used throughout Rájsháhí. Irrigation is practised in the case of rice-fields, the water being conducted from tanks or natural watercourses by means of small trenches. Land is hardly ever permitted to lie fallow; at most, one crop is occasionally substituted for another. Spare land is only to be seen in the elevated tract to the north-west of the District. The average produce of an acre of good rice land, renting at from 6s. to 9s., is 20 cwts., valued at £1, 16s. In the eastern part of the District, a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds is raised from the *áus* rice-fields, which yields from 4 to 6 cwts. per acre, worth from 18s. to £1, 4s. The lowest rate of rent is 3s. per acre; the highest is 18s., paid for mulberry, sugar-cane, and garden lands. Prior to the Decennial Settlement of 1790, the rent paid for ordinary lands was under 1s. an acre. There is but little peculiarity in the land tenures of the District, except the small number of *patní* or permanent under-leases. A few large *zamíndárs*, of whom the Rájá of Nattor still ranks as the most respected, though no longer the most wealthy, hold the greater part of the soil in their own management.

A cultivator's holding in Rájsháhí exceeding 33 acres in extent would be considered a very large farm, and anything below 3½ acres a very small farm. A farm comprising about 17 acres would be considered a fair-sized, comfortable holding for a husbandman. A single pair of bullocks cannot plough more than between 5 and 6 acres. A holding of about 5 acres in extent, although it would not make a cultivator as well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper, would enable him to live quite as well as a man receiving money wages of 16s. a month. The produce of a farm of this extent is ordinarily worth about £12 a year. Very few cultivators of Rájsháhí are continually in debt; but most of them incur liabilities to the village merchant at seed-time in the shape of advances of grain, which are repaid with interest after the rice crop has been harvested. The great majority of the husbandmen of the District hold their lands with a right of occupancy, the proportion of these cultivators to ordinary tenants-at-will being estimated to be as twenty to one. The number of *maurúsi jotdárs*, or husbandmen holding their lands in perpetuity and at a permanently fixed rate of rent, is, however, very small; and the Collector doubts whether they amount to even 1 per cent. of the general body of husbandmen cultivating with occupancy rights. No class of small

proprietors exists in Rájsháhí District, who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands themselves, without either a *zamíndár* or superior landlord of any sort above them, or a sub-tenant or labourer of any sort below them.

The ordinary rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past ten years. A common coolie now receives 3d. a day; an agricultural labourer, 3¾d.; a blacksmith or carpenter, 9d.; a mason or bricklayer, 6d. It does not appear whether the prices of food-grains have risen in proportion. In 1870, common rice sold at from 2s. to 2s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat at 5s. 5d. The highest price reached by rice in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 13s. 4d. per cwt. The average price of common rice for five years ending 1882-83 was 20¼ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 6d. per cwt.; wheat, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; and pulses, 17¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 4d. per cwt. The year 1883-84 was one of deficient rainfall, and prices ranged somewhat higher than the average, common rice being returned at 16⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 10½d. per cwt.; and wheat at 16⅝ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 9d. per cwt.

Rájsháhí is liable, to some extent, to both the calamities of flood and drought. The inundation which covers the country every year with water is usually only of such a character as to fertilize the soil; and the growing rice crop can keep pace with a moderate daily rise of the water. But on two or three occasions within the memory of the present generation, violent floods have injuriously affected the general harvest. On the other hand, in 1873, the deficient and capricious rainfall produced an amount of suffering which required the institution of relief works by Government. By help of the Ganges and the Northern Bengal Railway, the District is sufficiently well provided with means of communication to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine. No system of irrigation works or embankments has ever been proposed for adoption. If the price of rice were to rise in January, after the *áman* harvest, to 6s. 8d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—In former times, the preparation of indigo and the winding of silk were largely conducted by European capital; but both these industries are now on the decline. The annual out-turn of indigo in 1870 was estimated at about 700 cwts., from three factories; in 1881-82, indigo manufacture had decreased to less than 600 cwts., valued at £19,652. The European and native silk filatures which produced about 400,000 lbs. of raw silk in 1870, valued at £372,000, had by 1881-82 decreased to 110,000 lbs. of raw silk, valued at £82,333. Up to the time when the Company abandoned its private trade in 1835, the head factory at Rámpur Beauleah was among the most flourishing centres of sericulture in Bengal. A little of the native-wound silk is woven into a coarse cloth for local use; and

there is a special manufacture in certain villages of brass and bell-metal ware of a peculiarly fine quality.

The position of the great majority of the manufacturing classes is said to be about the same as that of the poorer cultivators and day-labourers. Their ordinary wages vary from 8s. to £1, according to the skill required. For really good skilled labour, the rates of wages range, according to the particular class of work, from £1, 10s. to £2 a month, and even higher. The manufacture of raw silk and indigo is conducted by capitalists entirely by means of hired labour. As to other manufactures, there is no well-marked distinction between capital and labour. Weavers work in their own houses, either on their own account or to order. Artisans either work for masters abroad, at a fixed rate of wages, or else carry on their work in their homes, and sell their productions to merchants. Advances to cultivators for growing indigo are frequently made by the planters. Occasionally, also, merchants make small money advances as loans to operatives, on the condition that the articles manufactured shall be sold to them at a rate somewhat below the current market price. The total number of skilled workers, mechanics and artisans, in Rájsháhí District in 1881, was returned at 27,079 male adults.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. The chief marts are Rámpur Beauleah and Godágári on the Ganges; and Náogáon, Káliganj, and Burídah on the network of streams which lead through the Chalan *bíl* into the Brahmaputra. The principal export is rice, together with some jute from the northern tracts, to which may be added silk, indigo, and *gánjá*. The imports comprise piece-goods, salt, sugar, gram, brass-ware, kerosine oil, and spices. The local trade is conducted at bi-weekly markets, in the towns and larger villages, and at periodical religious gatherings. The registration returns of river traffic for 1876-77 showed a total export from Rájsháhí valued at £907,855, against imports valued at £439,799. The greater portion of the traffic converges at the railway stations of Goálanda and Kushtiá, but there is some export of rice up the Ganges to Behar. The chief exports were —rice, 899,700 *maunds* of 82 lbs., and paddy, 394,500 *maunds*, valued together at £219,390; jute, 402,303 *maunds*, valued at £120,690; raw silk, 7784 *maunds*, valued at £389,200; indigo, 1290 *maunds*, valued at £25,800. The imports comprised—European piece-goods, £63,310; salt, 214,600 *maunds*, valued at £107,300; sugar, refined, 91,600 *maunds*—unrefined, 84,700 *maunds*, valued together at £143,910; coal and coke, 173,139 *maunds*. Of the local marts, the trade of Rámpur Beauleah was valued at £342,019 exports, and £199,161 imports; Godágári, £17,089 exports, and £193 imports; Náogáon, £122,959 exports, and £34,378 imports. The single mart of Burídahá exported 206,000 *maunds* of jute. No systematic registration of District

exports and imports is now maintained, and it is not possible to give any more recent trade statistics than those quoted above for 1876–77.

The Northern Bengal State Railway, opened in 1877, intersects the whole District from south to north. In 1882, the total length of the District roads (exclusive of village cart-tracks) was returned at 279 miles, maintained at a cost of £10,803. But the chief means of communication are the natural watercourses, by which nearly every village in the north and east of the District can be approached during the rainy season.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Rájsháhí District amounted to £136,808, towards which the land-tax contributed £103,456, or 75 per cent.; the net expenditure was £46,438, or just one-third of the revenue. It would be misleading to compare these totals with those for earlier years; but it may be mentioned that in 1793–94, when the area of the District was fivefold larger than it is now, the net revenue was £175,734, and the net expenditure £19,815. In 1883–84, the six main items of Government revenue aggregated £123,099, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £88,584; excise, £8500; stamps, £15,128; registration, £882; road cess, £7525; and municipal taxes, £2480. In 1883–84 there were 1409 estates in the District, owned by 6059 registered proprietors, the average Government revenue paid by each estate being £62, 17s. 5d., or by each proprietor, £14, 12s. 5d. In 1883 there were 3 covenanted officers stationed in the District, and 9 magisterial and 5 civil and revenue courts open.

For administrative and police purposes, Rájsháhí is divided into 3 Sub-divisions and 13 *thánás* or police circles, as follows:—(1) *Sadr* or Rájsháhí Sub-division, containing the six police circles of Beauleah, Tánor, Godágári, Putiyá, Chárghát, and Bághmára; (2) Náogáon Sub-division, with the three police circles of Náogáon, Mandá, and Pánchgáon; and (3) Náttor Sub-division, with the four police circles of Náttor, Singrá, Burígrám, and Lálpur. In 1883, the regular police force numbered 426 men of all ranks, of whom 67 were employed on town or municipal duties, maintained at a total cost of £7880. In addition, there was a rural police or village watch maintained by the villages and landholders, numbering 4683 men, and costing an estimated sum, in money or lands, of £16,995. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5109 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·46 square mile of the area or to every 262 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £24,875, averaging £10, 10s. 8½d. per square mile, and 4d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons in Rájsháhí District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1805, being 1 person to

every 742 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail, which has recently been converted into a central jail for the neighbouring Districts, and two Sub-divisional lock-ups. In 1883, the average daily number of prisoners was 677, of whom 36 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 653. The above figures show 1 person in jail to every 1977 of the population.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. In 1856 there were only 2 Government-inspected schools in the District, attended by 209 pupils; by 1870 these numbers had grown to 174 schools and 4862 pupils. In the latter year, the total expenditure on education was £5225, towards which Government contributed £2714. In 1876 the schools had further increased to 319, and the pupils to 10,051. By 1883–84, nearly all the schools in the District had been brought under the Government system of education. In that year the primary schools alone, under inspection by the Education Department, numbered 605, with 16,194 pupils. In 1881, the Census returned 14,265 boys and 933 girls as under instruction; besides 29,914 males and 1458 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The chief educational establishment is the Rájsháhí College at Rámpur Beauleah, with its attached collegiate school, established through the liberality of a local *zámíndár*, who has endowed it with an estate worth £500 a year. At the end of 1883–84, the Rájsháhí College had 81, and the collegiate school 414 pupils on its roll.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Rájsháhí does not differ from that common to all Lower Bengal. The rainy season sets in about the middle of June and lasts till the end of October. The annual rainfall for a period of 25 years averaged 61·36 inches, the monthly mean being as follows:—January, 0·30 inch; February, 1·07 inch; March, 1·22 inch; April, 1·87 inch; May, 5·61 inches; June, 11·22 inches; July, 12·07 inches; August, 11·25 inches; September, 11·16 inches; October, 5·23 inches; November, 0·31 inch; and December, 0·05 inch. The year 1883 was one of greatly deficient rainfall, and only 33·06 inches fell, or little over half the average. In 1868 the mean temperature for the year was returned at 78·3° F. No later thermometrical statistics are available.

The endemic diseases include fevers, both remittent and intermittent; hepatic affections, splenic enlargement, dysentery, and diarrhœa. It is said that cholera is never absent from the neighbourhood of the Chalan *bíl*, whence it occasionally spreads throughout the District, being propagated by contagion at the religious gatherings. Outbreaks, also, of epidemic small-pox are not uncommon. The vital statistics for 1883

show 43,990 registered deaths in the year, being a death-rate of 32·86 per thousand. There were, in 1883, seven charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 340 in-door and 21,855 out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further information regarding Rájsháhí, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. viii. pp. 1–126 (London, Trübner & Co., 1877); the *Bengal Census Reports* for 1872 and 1881; and the several annual Bengal Administration and Departmental Reports up to 1884.]

Rájsháhí.—*Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division of Rájsháhí District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 3′ 15″ to 24° 56′ N., and long. 88° 21′ to 89° 11′ E. Area, 944 square miles, with 2 towns and 2215 villages; number of houses, 101,418, namely, occupied 97,683, and unoccupied 3735. Total population 599,547, namely, males 297,166, and females 302,381. Average density of population, 635 persons per square mile; towns and villages, 2·35 per square mile; persons per village, 270; houses per square mile, 107·4; persons per occupied house, 6·14. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 484,816; Hindus, 114,562; Christians, 101; Buddhists, 55; Jains, 4; Jews, 2; and non-Hindu aborigines, 7. This Sub-division comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Rámpur Beauleah, Godágári, Tánor, Bághmára, Putiyá, and Chárghát. In 1884 it contained (including head-quarters courts) 4 civil and 5 criminal courts; a regular police numbering 257 men of all ranks, and a village watch or rural police of 1472 *chaukídárs*.

Rakabdev.—Village in the State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated 45 miles south of Udaipur city, and 10 north of Khairwárá. The famous Jain temples of Rakabdev, sacred to Adináth or Rakabnáth, are supposed to have been built in 1375, over the spot where the effigy of Rakabnáth—brought originally from Dungarpur in Baroda in 1260—was discovered buried in the ground by a devout banker, to whom the fact was revealed in a dream. The temples are famed for their sculpture, and are a great resort for pilgrims from Gujarát and elsewhere.

Raldang (or *West Kailás*).—Mountain in Bashahr (Bassahir) State. Punjab. Lat. 31° 29′ N., long. 78° 21′ E. Thornton states that it rises from the Kunáwár valley, and divides the basin of the Baspa from that of the Tidang. The highest peak (according to Thornton) has an elevation of 21,103 feet above sea-level.

Rámachandrapuram.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 400 square miles. Population (1881) 220,780, namely, 109,427 males and 111,353 females, dwelling in 163 villages, containing 39,559 houses. Hindus numbered 217,221; Muhammadans, 3505; Christians, 48; and 'others,' 6. Land revenue (1883), £84,754.

This *táluk*, the largest and most important in the District, is a portion of the amply irrigated Godávari delta. Six anicut main channels run through it, all of them admitting of navigation. Lands thus watered pay a cess of 8s. an acre for wet crops, 4s. for dry crops, and 16s. when water is supplied all the year round. The *táluk* is productive and healthy, except in the cold season, when it is feverish. Criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 76 men. The head-quarters of the *táluk* are at Rámachandrapuram, situated in the centre of the *táluk*, and north of the Mandapeta canal. Population (1881) 2992, occupying 560 houses.

Rámallakota. — *Táluk* of Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 834 square miles. Population (1881) 94,698, namely, 48,393 males and 46,305 females, dwelling in 1 town and 106 villages, containing 19,029 houses. Hindus number 77,138; Muhammadans, 17,005; Christians, 548; and 'others,' 7. Civil courts, 2; criminal courts, 2; police circles, 13; regular police, 297 men. Land revenue, £15,158.

Rámanáda-puram (or *Rámnád*).—Chief town of Rámnád *zamíndári* in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* RAMNAD.

Rámandrúg.—Hill sanitarium in Sandúr State, Bellary District, Madras Presidency.—*See* RAMANMALAI.

Rámanka.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *pranth* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Seven miles north of Dhola junction, on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Area, 2 square miles. Population (1881) 509. Rámanka consists of one village, held by two separate shareholders. The revenue is estimated at £150; tribute of £57 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £10 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rámanmalai (*Rámandrúg*, *Rámadurgam*). — Hill sanitarium in Sandúr State, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 6′ 30″ N., long. 76° 30′ 30″ E.; 38 miles west of Bellary town. Population (1881) 568. In the year 1846, the Madras Government obtained permission from the Chief of Sandúr to establish a Convalescent Depôt for the European troops, serving in the Ceded Districts of Madras Presidency, on the plateau of Rámandrúg in the Sandúr territory. The station is built at a height of 3150 feet above the sea-level, 1660 above Bellary, and 1200 above the surrounding plain. The plateau is from a mile to a mile and a half long, by half a mile to three-quarters of a mile broad. The average temperature of the hill very much resembles that of Bangalore, but the climate is much more equable, and the variation of the thermometer less. From its solitary position, even in the hottest seasons, the air reaches it fresh, being rarified in its passage over a lofty table-land. There are several well laid out riding-paths on both sides of the plateau, which afford from all points beautiful views of the

surrounding country. On the plateau itself there are upwards of 3 miles of broad level road practicable for vehicles. Many good bridle roads have been cut along the sides of the hills to the north and south. The depôt can accommodate 60 single men and 10 families. The residents of Bellary have 15 houses on the plateau.

Ramás.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Estimated area under cultivation, 2562 acres. Population (1881) 1745. The revenue is returned at £244; tribute of £15, 16s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The Chief of Ramás, Miáh Kálú, is a Muhammadan.

Rambha. — Village in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Situated on the banks of the Chilká lake, and on the trunk road from Madras to Calcutta, about 23 miles north-east of Ganjám town. Population (1881) 3222, occupying 597 houses. A large two-storied house built in 1792 stands in a beautiful situation overlooking the lake. Post-office.

Rámbrái.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, under the presidency of a *siem* named U Amar Singh. Population (1881) 2202; revenue, £44. The products are rice, chillies, millet, Indian corn, ginger, job's tears, etc. Cotton cloth is woven.

Rámdás. — Town and municipality in Ajnála *tahsíl*, Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 58′ N., long. 74° 58′ E., near the Kirrán stream, 12 miles north-east of Ajnála town. Population (1881) 4498, namely, Muhammadans, 2549; Sikhs, 264; and Hindus, 1685. Number of houses, 959. Municipal income (1883-84), £143, or an average of 7½d. per head. The town was founded by one Bádhá, a disciple of Bába Nának, the apostle of the Sikh faith, but derives its present name from Guru Rám Dás. Handsome Sikh temple, to which the town owes its chief importance. School.

Rámdrug.—Native State under the Political Agency of the Southern Maráthá Country, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by the Torgal Sub-division of Kolhápur State, on the south by Nargund in Dhárwár District, on the east by the Bádámi Sub-division of Bijápur District, and on the west by the Nawalgund Sub-division of Dhárwár District. Area, 140 square miles. Population (1872) 38,031; (1881) 29,570, namely, 14,576 males and 14,994 females, dwelling in 1 town and 37 villages, containing 6440 houses. Hindus number 27,623; Musalmáns, 1903; 'others,' 44.

The general appearance of the country is that of a plain surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ranges of hills. The prevailing soil is rich black. The river Malprabha flows through the State, and is utilized for irrigation. Indian millet, wheat, gram, *joár*, and cotton form the chief agricultural products. Coarse cotton

cloth is the principal manufacture. The climate is the same as that of the Deccan generally; the heat from March to May is oppressive. The prevailing diseases are cholera, small-pox, and fever.

Nargund and Rámdrug, two strong forts in the Karnátik, were occupied by the Maráthás in their early struggles; and by favour of the Peshwás, the ancestors of the present Rámdrug family were placed in charge of them. About 1753 the estates yielded £24,725, and were required to furnish a contingent of 350 horsemen. They were held on these terms until 1778, when the country was brought under subjection by Haidar Alí. In 1784, Tipú Sultán made further demands. These were resisted, and, in consequence, the fort of Rámdrug was blockaded by Tipú. After a siege of seven months, Venkat Ráo of Nargund surrendered, and, in violation of the terms of capitulation, was carried off a prisoner with his whole family into Mysore. On the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, Venkat Ráo was released; and the Peshwá restored to him Nargund and lands yielding £12,711, and granted to Rám Ráo the fort of Rámdrug, with lands yielding £2600. The two branches of the family continued to enjoy their respective States till 1810, when the Peshwá made a new division of the lands, in equal shares, to Venkat Ráo and Náráyan Ráo, the sons of Rám Ráo. On the fall of the Peshwá in 1818–19, the estates were continued to these two chiefs by an engagement. Nargund is now a lapsed State, being included in the Nawalgund Sub-division of Dhárwár District.

In 1881–82, the chief of Rámdrug, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, was a minor, and the State was under the direct management of British officers. The Rájá ranks officially as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Maráthá Country, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £12,360, and maintains a military force of 547 men. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture. The State contained in 1882–83, 9 schools, with a total of 591 pupils. The dispensary at Ramdrug was attended by 2805 patients in 1883.

Rámdrug.—Chief town of Rámdrug State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 56′ 40″ N., long. 75° 20′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 6810, namely, Hindus, 6012; Muhammadans, 764; and Jains, 34.

Rámeswaram (incorrectly *Ramisseram*). — Island and town in Rámnád *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 17′ 10″ N., long. 79° 21′ 55″ E. Population of island (1871) 13,767; (1881) 17,854, namely, 9184 males and 8670 females, occupying 3193 houses in 9 villages. Hindus number 10,655; Muhammadans, 5611; and Christians, 1588. Rámeswaram is a low sandy island, situated in the Gulf of Manaar, the passage that separates the mainland of India from Ceylon. It is about 11 miles long by 6 wide, and was probably at one

time connected with the mainland. The eastern half is merely a narrow strip of sand. Rámeswaram island contains one of the most venerated Hindu shrines in India, founded, according to tradition, by Ráma himself. It is associated with Ráma's journey to Ceylon in search of Sítá, and plays an important part in the *Rámáyana*. For centuries this temple has been the resort of thousands of pilgrims, who come from all parts of India through Rámnád to the crossing; and it is to their control of the passage from the mainland that the chiefs of Rámnád owe their hereditary title of Setupati, 'Lord of the Bridge or Causeway.'

The island is to a great extent covered with *babúl* (Acacia arabica) trees. Cocoa-nut palms and a few gardens make up all the cultivation. It is principally inhabited by Bráhmans and their followers, who are supported by the profits derived from the temples. South of the great temple is a fresh-water lake, about three miles in circumference.

The great temple, or *coil*, stands on rising ground in the northern part of the island, in a quadrangular enclosure 657 feet broad by about 1000 feet long, and is entered by a gateway 100 feet high. The height of the temple is about 120 feet; and, with its majestic towers, its vast and gloomy colonnades, and its walls encrusted with carved work and statuary, it exhibits a grand example of the Dravidian style. The best and oldest portion is built of a dark and hard limestone, to which there is nothing similar in the rest of the building. Local tradition asserts that it was erected by the Vara Rájá Sekkarar of Kandy, with stone cut and polished in Ceylon. The inner *prákáram* or corridor is ascribed to the exertion and piety of an early Madura Náyak; and it is known that the *sokkatan*, or magnificent *mantapam* outside, was the work of two of the Rámnád Setupatis. The stone of this latter building is a species of friable limestone quarried on the island, requiring a thick coat of plaster to preserve it from decay under the action of the sea-air. Its cost is said to have been defrayed by the seaport dues of all the coast towns of the estate during the year that it was building. The most striking features of the temple are the massiveness of the workmanship (slabs of 40 feet long being used in the doorways and ceilings), and the wonderful pillared halls which surround the inner shrine.

Mr. James Fergusson, in his *History of Eastern Architecture* (ed. 1876), thus describes this celebrated shrine:—'If it were proposed to select one temple which should exhibit all the beauties of the Dravidian style in their greatest perfection, and at the same time exemplify all its characteristic defects of design, the choice would almost inevitably fall upon that at Rámeswaram. In no other temple has the same amount of patient industry been exhibited as here; and in none, unfortunately,

has that labour been so thrown away for want of a design appropriate to its display. It is not that this temple has grown by successive increments, like those last described; it was begun and finished on a previously settled plan, as regularly and as undeviatingly carried out as at Tanjore, but on a principle so diametrically opposed to it, that while the temple at Tanjore produces an effect greater than is due to its mass or detail, this one, with double its dimensions and ten times its elaboration, produces no effect externally, and internally can only be seen in detail, so that the parts hardly in any instance aid one another in producing the effect aimed at.

'Externally, the temple is enclosed by a wall 20 feet in height, with 4 *gopuras*, one on each face, which have this peculiarity, that they alone, of all those I know in India, are built wholly of stone from the base to the summit. The western one alone, however, is finished. Those on the north and south are hardly higher than the wall in which they stand, and are consequently called the ruined gateways. Partly from their form, but more from the solidity of their construction, nothing but an earthquake could well damage them. They have never been raised higher, and their progress was probably stopped in the beginning of the last century, when Muhammadans, Maráthás, and other foreign invaders checked the prosperity of the land, and destroyed the wealth of the priesthood. The eastern façade has two entrances and two *gopuras*. The glory of the temple, however, is in its corridors. These extend to a total length of nearly 4000 feet. Their breadth varies from 20 feet to 30 feet of free floor space, and their height is apparently about 30 feet from the floor to the centre of the roof. Each pillar or pier is compound, and richer and more elaborate in design than those of the Párvatí porch at Chidambaram, and certainly more modern in date.

'None of our English cathedrals are more than 500 feet long, and even the nave of St. Peter's is only 600 feet from the door to the apse. Here the side corridors are 700 feet long, and open into transverse galleries as rich in detail as themselves. These, with the varied devices and modes of lighting, produce an effect that is not equalled certainly anywhere in India. The side corridors are generally free from figure-sculpture, and consequently from much of the vulgarity of the age to which they belong, and, though narrower, produce a more pleasing effect. The central corridor leading from the sanctuary is adorned on one side by portraits of the Rájás of Rámnád in the 17th century, and, opposite them, of their secretaries. Even they, however, would be tolerable, were it not that within the last few years they have been painted with a vulgarity that is inconceivable on the part of the descendants of those who built this fane. Not only these, but the whole of the architecture, has first been dosed with

repeated coats of whitewash, so as to take off all the sharpness of detail, and then painted with blue, green, red, and yellow washes, so as to disfigure and destroy its effect to an extent that must be seen to be believed.

'The age of this temple is hardly doubtful. From first to last its style, excepting the old *vimána*, is so uniform and unaltered, that its erection could hardly have lasted during a hundred years; and if this is so, it must have been during the 17th century, when the Rámnád Rájás were at the height of their independence and prosperity, and when their ally or master, Tirumala Náyak, was erecting buildings in the same identical style at Madura. It may have been commenced fifty years earlier (1550), and the erection of its *gopuras* may have extended into the 18th century, but these seem the possible limits of deviation. Being so recent, any one on the spot could easily ascertain the facts. They could, indeed, be determined very nearly from the photographs, were it not for the whitewash and paint which so disfigure the details as to make them almost unrecognisable.'

The temple, its ceremonies, and its attendant Bráhmans are maintained from the revenue of 57 villages, yielding an annual income of about £4500, granted by former Rájás of the Rámṇád *zamíndárí*. The *lingam* is supposed to have been placed here by Ráma; and the symbol is washed with Ganges water, which is afterwards sold.

Rámeswaram. — Town in Rámnád *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated on the eastern shore of Rámeswaram island. Population (1881) 6119, namely, Hindus, 5467; Muham madans, 236; and Christians, 416. Number of houses, 416.

Rámgangá, Eastern.—River in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Rises on the southern slope of the main Himálayan range, at an elevation of about 9000 feet above sea-level; holds a generally southerly course for about 55 miles, and falls into the Sarju at Rámeswar. The united stream often bears the name of Rámgangá as far as its junction with the Káli.

Rámgangá, Western. — River in Kumáun and Rohilkhand Divisions, North-Western Provinces, and in Hardoi District, Oudh. Rises among the outer Himálayas, in lat. 30° 6′ N., and long. 79° 20′ E. Flows for about 100 miles through the hills of Garhwál and Kumáun, with a very rapid fall; enters the plains at Kálágarh in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, already a large river; 15 miles lower down it receives the Koh, a considerable tributary; thence passes into Moradábád District, through which it flows in a south-easterly direction, but with a very devious course through the alluvial lowland; runs past the town of Moradábád, on its right bank; enters the State of Rámpur, which it crosses in the same general direction, with an equally tortuous course, into Bareilly (Bareli) District—here it becomes navigable during

the rains for country boats, but remains fordable during the dry season; thence, flowing through Budáun into Sháhjahánpur, it ceases to be fordable at Jalálábád, and becomes navigable for boats of considerable burden, which carry on a traffic in cereals and pulses, in the hands of traders from Cawnpur; it next crosses into the Oudh District of Hardoi, and finally joins the Ganges, nearly opposite Kanauj, after a total course of about 373 miles. Its principal tributaries are the Kúsi, the Sanka, and the Deoha or Garah. During its whole course through the plains, the Rámgangá flows in a shifting and uncertain channel. It changed its bed about the middle of this century, so as to run into the Dajora and pass Bareilly city; but in the rains of 1871 it returned to its old channel, about 10 miles distant. During floods, the river spreads out widely on either side, and deposits a fine alluvial mud; though in places where the current runs fiercely, it leaves instead a layer of barren sand. Its waters are little used for purposes of irrigation.

Rámgarh.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; in the Dámodar valley, near the old village of Rámgarh, whence the field takes its name. Its total area does not exceed 40 square miles; the greatest length from east to west being 14 miles, and the greatest width from north to south about 8 miles. The southern boundary is formed by a fault; and owing to the peculiar way in which this has cut off the rocks, it is extremely difficult, except in the case of the ironstone shales, to estimate with any degree of certainty the thickness of the several formations. The following is as near an approximation as can be made:—(1) Tálcher series, 850 to 900 feet; (2) Dámodar series, Barákhar group, 3000 feet; ironstone shales group, 1200 feet; Ránígani group, unknown. The boulder conglomerate occurring at the base of the Tálcher rocks is considered by geologists to be a shore deposit, formed from silt gradually accumulating as the waters advanced over the sinking surface, upon a *talus* composed of boulders and weathered masses of gneiss resting on the flanks of the metamorphic hills. The usual carbonaceous ore of iron is found in the ironstone shales; but it is of inferior quality, and its proportion is below the average obtained in other fields. The Rámgarh field is of but small value in an economic point of view. The coal in the eastern part occurs generally in thick seams, some of them having low dips; but the quality is so variable, thin bands of coal frequently alternating with strong carbonaceous shale, that it is improbable that the former, even under the most favourable conditions of market and carriage, could ever be extracted with profit.

Rámgarh.—Hill in Sargúja State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. A rectangular mass of sandstone rising abruptly from the plain, about 8 miles west of Lakhanpur village. It is descended from the northern

side by a path, which follows the ridge of an outlying spur nearly as far as the base of the main rock. Here, at a height of 2600 feet, is an ancient stone gateway, the lintel of which is sculptured with an image of Ganesha. A little west of this, but at the same level, a constant stream of pure water wells out, in a natural grotto, from a fissure in the massive bed of sandstone. A second gateway crowns the most difficult part of the ascent. Colonel Dalton considers this to be the best executed and most beautiful architectural antiquity of the entire region, which abounds in remains indicating a previous occupation of the country by some race more highly civilised than its present inhabitants. Though the origin of these gateways is unknown, the second is unquestionably the more modern work, and belongs to that description of Hindu architecture which bears most resemblance to the Saracenic. On Rámgarh Hill are several rock-caves with roughly cut inscriptions, and ruins of temples containing figures of Durgá with twenty arms, Hanumán, and other deities. But the most striking feature is the singular tunnel in the northern face of the rock, known as the Háthpor. Mr. V. Ball, of the Geological Survey, attributes its formation to the trickling of water through crevices in the sandstone, and it certainly bears no sign of human workmanship. At its mouth this tunnel is about 20 feet in height by 30 in breadth; but at the inner extremity of its course of 150 yards, it is not more than 8 feet by 12. [For further details concerning the temples on Rámgarh Hill and in its neighbourhood, and its cave-tunnel, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 236–240.]

Rámgarh.—North-eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Mandlá District, Central Provinces. Area, 2677 square miles; number of villages, 791; houses, 26,793. Population (1881) 129,962, namely, males 66,554, and females 63,408. Average density, 48·5 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 62,418, with an average of 17 acres of cultivated and cultivable land to each. Of a total area of 2677 square miles, nearly two-thirds, or 1762 square miles, are held revenue-free. Total area assessed for Government revenue, 915 square miles, of which 264 square miles are returned as under cultivation; 451 square miles as cultivable; and 200 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £3507, or an average of 5d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £5389, or an average of 7⅝d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contained in 1884 a *tahsíldár's* court; strength of regular police, 116 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 326. The head-quarters of the Sub-division are at Dindárí.

Rámgarh.—Town in Mandlá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 47′ N., and long. 81° E., on a rocky eminence, below which

flows the Burhner, separating Rámgarh from the village of Amarpur, the site of an encamping ground. In 1680, Rámgarh, with the title of Rájá, was bestowed by Rájá Narendra Sá on a chief who had assisted him in recovering his dominions, from which he had been expelled by a cousin, aided by a Muhammadan force. The quit-rent was fixed at £300, and was still in force at the British occupation in 1818. On the execution of Rájá Shankar Sá—the descendant of the Gond kings of Garhá-Mandlá—at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) for rebellion in 1857, the Ráni, who then represented the family on behalf of her lunatic son, Amán Singh, seized Rámgarh in her son's name. She headed her troops in several skirmishes with the English, but was at length compelled to take to flight. When the pursuit grew warm, she dismounted and plunged a sword into her own bosom. She was carried into the English camp, where she soon afterwards expired. Amán Singh and his two sons then surrendered. The former was deprived of his title of Rájá, and of his estate, a stipend being assigned to the family for their support. Rámgarh village was formerly the head-quarters of Rámgarh *tahsíl*, which has now been shifted to Dindárí village, 16 miles to the north. Rámgarh is now simply a police outpost station.

Rámgarh.—Fort in Hindúr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 5′ N., long. 76° 51′ E. Stands on a steep ridge which runs from the Himálayan range to the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). During the Gúrkha war of 1814, General Ochterlony invested the fort, and succeeded in conveying guns up the steep and pathless slopes of the hillside; upon which, after a short cannonade, the garrison capitulated. Elevation above sea-level, 4054 feet. The fort is very substantially built in several compartments, and is supplied with masonry reservoirs for the storage of rain water. About a mile down the hill, on the north slope, is a monument erected to the memory of Lieutenant G. T. Williams of the 3rd Native Infantry, who fell in the action fought here with the Gúrkhas on the 26th November 1814.

Rámgarh.—Guaranteed Thákurate under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. The Thákur receives through the Political Agent the following *tankhas* or pecuniary allowances in lieu of rights over lands, viz.—from Holkar, £100; from Sindhia, £681; from Dewás, £10; from Bhopál, £70: total, £861.

Rámgarh. — Town in the Shaikháwati district of Jaipur State, Rájputána; situated 100 miles north-west from Jaipur city. Population (1881) 11,313, namely, 5488 males and 5825 females. Hindus number 8936; Muhammadans, 2320; and 'others,' 57. Contains many palatial edifices belonging to wealthy bankers, by whom it is largely peopled. Possesses a most imposing appearance as it is approached from the north. Post-office.

Rámghát.—Town in Anúpshahr *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Situated on the right bank of the Ganges; distant from Anúpshahr 20 miles south-east, from Bulandshahr town 42 miles south-east. One of the sacred *gháts* to which pilgrims in the neighbourhood resort to bathe in the Ganges. Population (1881) 2903. The population of the town has largely decreased of late years, as Rájghát, with its station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, and its permanent bridge over the Ganges, has become a more popular place of resort. The river also has taken a new course, which threatens entirely to wash away the town. A bridge of boats conveys the Alígarh and Islámnagar road across the Ganges for eight months of the year. Trade with Rohilkhand; and, by boat, with Benares and Mírzápur. Village school, girls' school, police station, post-office. The Maráthás were defeated here in 1763 by a combined British and Oudh force. Numerous Hindu temples, none of architectural importance. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Rámgirí. — Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore State, on the left bank of the Arkavati. Lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 77° 22′ E. Crowned with the ruins of fortifications, captured by the British in 1791. On the foundation of Closepet in 1800, the inhabitants of Rámgirí removed to the new settlement.

Rámia Bihár.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the south side of an old channel of the Kauriála, now closed up and forming a lake. Population (1881) 2103, namely, 1852 Hindus and 251 Musalmáns. Picturesquely situated between fine groves east and west of the village. Small market.

Ramisseram. — Island and town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* RAMESWARAM.

Rámkail.—Fair held annually on the last day of the Hindu month of Jaishtha (about the middle of June), within the precincts of Old Gaur, in the immediate neighbourhood of the great Ságar Díghí, Maldah District, Bengal. Pilgrims and others, chiefly Hindus of the Vaishnav sect, flock hither to the number of 30,000 from all parts of Maldah, and from the neighbouring Districts. The ceremonies consist in performing worship, and giving feasts in honour of Krishna. Advantage is also taken of this occasion by the Vaishnavs to get married in strict accordance with the rites prescribed by Chaitanya. This religious gathering continues for five days. The place is well supplied with tanks, containing abundance of wholesome water. Some rows of houses are kept in repair solely for the purposes of this fair. It commemorates the retirement from public life of two Bráhman brothers, Rúp and Sanátan Goswámi, ministers of Husain Sháh, King of Gaur (1515 A.D.), who became Bairagís or religious mendicants, and followers of the Vishnuite reformer Chaitanya.

Rámkot.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sítápur *parganá*, on the east by Khairábád, on the south by Machhrehta, and on the west by Misrikh. A small *parganá* with an area of 20 square miles, of which 11 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 7666. The incidence of the Government land revenue is at the rate of 3s. 4½d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 3d. per acre of assessed area, or 1s. 11⅝d. per acre of total area. The village of Rámkot, from which the *parganá* derives its name, is said to have been founded by Ráma himself during his wanderings in exile. It is situated 7 miles from Sítápur town; noted for its fine tanks, and a favourite resort of the European residents of the civil station. The *tálukdárs* are Janwár Rájputs, the descendants of a chief who acquired the tract in 1707 by conquest from the Kachheras.

Rammán.—One of the tributaries of the Great Ranjít river in Dárjíling District, Bengal. It rises under the Phalálum mountain in the Singálilá range, which separates Dárjíling from Nepál. The Rammán first touches upon the former District in its extreme north-west portion, whence it flows along the northern boundary from west to east until it falls into the Great Ranjít, in lat. 27° 8′ N., and long. 88° 19′ E. The banks of the river are abrupt and covered for the most part with forest and jungle, its bed is rocky, and it is not fordable at any season of the year. The principal tributaries of the Rammán within Dárjíling District are the Ratho and Srí.

Rámnád.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Madura District, Madras Presidency; lies between lat. 9° 3′ and 10° 2′ N., and long. 78° and 79° 24′ E. Bounded on the north by Sivaganga *zamíndárí* and Tirumangalam *táluk*; on the east by Tanjore District and Palk's Strait; on the south by the Gulf of Manaar; and on the west by Tinnevelli District.

The chief is the head of the Maravár caste. Pokalúr, now a small hamlet on the Madura road, 10 miles north-west of Rámnád, was formerly the family seat; but about the commencement of the 18th century they moved their capital to the present town, and fortified it. The fortifications (now destroyed) consisted of a wall 27 feet high and 5 feet thick, surrounded by a ditch, now filled with rubbish. In the centre of the fort is the royal palace. Amid the general anarchy which followed on the death of Tirumala in 1659, the Setupati (the old title of the Rájás of Rámnád) succeeded in maintaining the integrity of his ancestral dominions. But in the beginning of the 18th century a succession of famines desolated the country. These were aggravated by internal dissensions; and in 1729 the kingdom of Rámnád was dismembered. Three-fifths were left to the legitimate heir, while two-fifths were assigned to a rebellious vassal, whose descendant now bears the title of Rájá of Sivagangá. The treaty of 1792 provided that the *pálegárs* dependent on the *Subahdárí* or Governor-

ship of Arcot should be placed under the British Government. On this occasion Colonel Martyn was sent with a small force to occupy Rámnád, and to arrange for the punctual collection of the revenue due from the estate. In 1795 the *zamíndár* was deposed for rebellion, and sent as a prisoner to Madras. In 1803 the Government made over Rámnád to the elder sister of the deposed *zamíndár*, the assessment being fixed permanently at two-thirds of the gross revenue, as then estimated. The estate is now in the hands of the Court of Wards, the *zamíndár* being a minor. He will not come of age till 1889.

The general appearance of the country is flat and uninteresting. Large groves of palmyra palms form the only feature in the landscape. The Vaigai river, which waters Madura, supplies the large tank at Rámnád, capable of irrigating over 6000 acres of land. The total number of tanks in the *zamíndárí* is about 2000. The population was returned by the Census of 1871 at 500,653 persons. The Census of 1881 returned a total of 432,542, namely, 201,990 males and 230,552 females, dwelling in 80,797 houses. Hindus number 344,188; Muhammadans, 60,436; Christians, 27,910; and 'others,' 8. The area is about 2400 square miles; the total revenue is estimated at £74,174; the *peshkash*, or tribute payable to the British Government, is £31,400. In 1769, the famous Jesuit, John de Britto, was put to death by the Rájá of Rámnád.

Rámnád (*Rámanátha-puram*, *Rámanáda-puram*). — Chief town of Rámnád *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 22′ 16″ N., and long. 78° 52′ 9″ E. Population (1871) 15,442; (1881) 10,519, namely, 4853 males and 5666 females, residing in 2027 houses. Hindus number 8532; Muhammadans, 1693; and Christians, 294. Within the fort, the majority of the inhabitants belong to the Vellállar and Maravár castes, depending for their livelihood upon service about the palace. Outside live a great number of Chettis and Labbays, in whose hands is the whole coast trade. There is a neat Protestant church, belonging to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, who have a mission here; two Roman Catholic churches; and several large rest-houses, which are the resort of the pilgrims passing through Rámnád on their way to Rámeswaram. The town was captured by General Smith in 1772. The old Rámnád princes claimed the title of Setupatis, or Lords of the Bridge or Causeway, in allusion to the legendary invasion of Ceylon by Ráma, *viâ* Adam's Bridge and Rámeswaram.

Rámnagar.—Town in Chandaulí *tahsíl*, Benares District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 15′ 47″ N., long. 83° 4′ 20″ E. Situated on the Ganges, about 2 miles above Benares city, of which it may be considered a suburb, and on the opposite or southern bank. It is the

residence of the Mahárájá of Benares, who has a palace in the town. Interesting old fort; handsome temple, tank, and garden, commenced by Chait Singh, and finished by the present Mahárájá. Population (1881) 11,859, namely, males 6060, and females 5799. Hindus number 9382, chiefly Bráhmans and Bhuinhárs; and Muhammadans, 2477. Two broad and well-kept roadways bisect the town, lined with masonry shops and several ornamental private buildings. In the streets leading off from the principal roadways, the houses are mostly built of mud, and are tile-roofed. Rámnagar is a considerable commercial centre. The *golá* or grain mart, situated near the fort, is a small square with busy grain shops. Rámnagar also enjoys a speciality in the manufacture of riding-whips, and wicker-work stools and chairs. The public buildings consist of a police station, post-office, and an English school. On the southern outskirt of the town is a well-kept *sarái* or native inn. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Rámnagar.—Town and municipality in Wazírábád *tahsíl*, Gujránwálá District, Punjab; situated below the high bank of the river Chenab (Chináb), 22 miles south-west of Wazírábád, and 28 miles north-west of Gujránwálá town, in lat. 32° 19′ N., and long. 73° 50′ E. Population (1881) 6830, namely, Muhammadans, 4609; Hindus, 1845; Sikhs, 331; and Jains, 45. Number of houses, 1481. Municipal income (1883–84), £514, or an average of 1s. 6d. per head. The town, originally known as Rasúlnagar, was founded by Núr Muhammad, a Chattah chieftain, who possessed great power in the Punjab during the first half of the 18th century. It rapidly grew into importance under his family. It was stormed in 1795 by Ranjit Singh, after a gallant resistance made by Ghulám Muhammad, the reigning Chattah chief, and received from the Sikhs its new name of Rámnagar. The population has decreased of late years. Manufacture of leathern vessels, used as sacks and bottles. Annual fair on 1st of April, attended by 25,000 persons. Several fine buildings, erected during the Chattah supremacy, still remain. During the second Sikh war, Lord Gough first encountered the Sikh troops of Sher Singh near Rámnagar in 1848.

Rámnagar.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Market twice a week.

Rámnagar.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 27° 9′ 53″ N., long. 84° 22′ 2″ E.; 13 miles north-west of Bettiá. Only noteworthy as the residence of the Rájá of Rámnagar, whose title was first conferred by the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1676, and confirmed by the British Government in 1860. His revenue is principally derived from the produce of the Rámnagar jungles. The village has a very bad reputation for fever.

Rámnagar. — *Parganá* in Fatehpur *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Chauká river; on the east by Bado Sarái *parganá*; on the south by the Kalyáni river; and on the west by Fatehpur *parganá*. Area, 112 square miles, or 71,716 acres, of which 50,732 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 80,559, namely, males 42,649, and females 37,910. Of the 168 villages which comprise the *parganá*, 138 are held in *tálukdárí*, 2 in *zamíndárí*, and 28 in *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £6850, at the rate of 3s. 4d. per cultivable acre. The principal proprietor is a Raikwár Rájput, Rájá Sarabjít Singh. Communication is afforded by a metalled road with the great timber mart of Bahramghát, which lies within the *parganá*, and by the main road from Faizábád (Fyzábád) to Sítápur and Kheri. The *parganá* contains 6 village schools, 2 post-offices, police station, and registration office.

Rámnagar.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated about 4 miles from Bahramghát, in lat. 27° 5′ N., and long. 81° 26′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 5376, namely, Hindus 4398, and Muhammadans 978. Number of houses, 956. Formerly the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* or Sub-division, but this has been recently removed to Fatehpur. Police station, registration office, and branch dispensary. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Rámnagar.—Town in Mandlá District, Central Provinces; 10 miles east of Mandlá town. Situated in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 80° 33′ E., at a lovely spot on a bend of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river. The capture of Chaurágarh by the Bundelás, and the growth of the Mughal Empire on the one hand, and of the Deogarh Gond kingdom on the other, made it advisable for the Garhá-Mandlá kings to select a more retired stronghold than Garhá or Chaurágarh. Accordingly, in 1663, Hirde Sá, 54th of the line, fixed on Rámnagar, which remained the seat of government for eight reigns, until Narendra Sá removed to Mandlá. During that period Rámnagar was a large and important place; and a *báoli* or well, now 4 miles east of the palace, is said to have then been in the heart of the town. The ruins are very extensive, the most remarkable being those of a palace built by Bhagwant Ráo, the prime minister of Hirde Sá. It was five storeys high, and overtopped the palace of the king, who accordingly ordered its walls to be lowered. The palace consisted of a quadrangle round an open court, with a small tank in the centre, supplied by fountains from the river. Close by, a small temple bears a Sanskrit inscription, recording the names of the Gond dynasty for thirteen centuries from Samvat 415, or 358 A.D., to the time of Hirde Sá.

Rampá (*Rumpah*).—Hill division, constituting a portion of what is known as the 'Agency Tract' of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 18′ 40″ to 17° 49′ N., and long. 81° 34′ 30″ to 82° E. Popula-

tion (1871) 13,958; (1881) 10,899, namely, 5443 males and 5456 females, occupying 2410 houses. Hindus number 10,879; Muhammadans, 12; and Christians, 8.

Rampá is a wild tract of country on the north bank of the Godávari — commencing about 20 miles above Rájámandri, and extending almost to the Sileru river, which forms the southern boundary of Jaipur. Bounded on the west by the Rekapalli *táluk* of Godávari; on the east by portions of the Golconda *táluk* of Vizagapatam; and on the south by the Rájámandri *táluk*. It contains 373 nominal villages, but it is very thinly populated, as the area is estimated at over 800 square miles. It yields a revenue to Government of only £123, 16s. Originally it was granted to the *mansabdár* as a *jágir* for military service. Disturbances broke out in 1858, and lasted until 1862, arising from the unpopularity of the *mansabdár*, and troops were sent against the rioters. A police force was in consequence recruited from the hillmen. In 1879, Rampá became the scene of another rising, which again involved the employment of troops. It lasted in an intermittent way until December 1880, when Chendriah, the rebel leader, was killed, the rebels dispersed, and the *mansabdár* was deported to Gopálpur as a State prisoner, his *mansabdárí* tenure being cancelled. A fresh settlement has recently been made with the *muttádars*, who hold groups of villages on condition of paying a quit-rent to Government, and of loyally assisting to preserve the peace.

The country presents a succession of hills from two to four thousand feet high, covered with dense jungle, and separated by valleys. The highest peak is Damakonda, 4478 feet above sea-level. There is a good made road from Rájámandri to Chodávaram (33 miles); a rough road, made by the Madras sappers during the Rampá revolt, from Chodávaram to Kota (14 miles); and a third from Chodávaram to Máredapalli (14 miles). The rest are jungle tracts. A passable road, two miles long, connects Chodávaram with the village of Rampá, which gives its name to the region. The products of the country are bamboos and tamarinds, which grow to an enormous size. The cultivation is principally of the nomadic kind locally termed *podu*, in which the forest is burned down, and the seed sown among the ashes. A little tobacco is grown to satisfy local wants. The hills are infested with tigers, leopards, bears, bison, and wolves. A strong police force is maintained at Chodávaram, and a weaker one at Kota. Both stations are stockaded. The deputy *tahsíldár* of Rothapilli has charge of Rampá under the sub-Collector, and is also invested with a limited civil jurisdiction. The climate is very cold in the winter months. Fevers are common, and malaria is prevalent thoughout the year. The inhabitants are chiefly Koyas and Reddis. They speak the Telugu and Koi languages. Their bamboo huts are stockaded to keep

out wild beasts. Two small schools—one at Chodávaram, and another at Kota.

Rámpáilí.—Town in Tirorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2157, namely, Hindus, 1696; Muhammadans, 207; and non-Hindu aborigines, 254.

Rámparda.—Petty State in the Jháláwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with two separate holders. Area, 5 square miles. Population (1881) 423. The revenue is estimated at £103; and tribute of £7, 10s. is paid to the British Government.

Rámpur.—Native State in Rohilkhand, under the political superintendence of the Government of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 28° 25′ and 29° 10′ N. lat., and between 78° 54′ and 79° 28′ E. long. Bounded on the north and west by the British District of Moradábád, and on the north-east and south-east by the District of Bareli (Bareilly). The area is returned by the Census Report of 1881 at 899 square miles, but the *North-Western Provinces Gazetteer* puts it at 945 square miles. Population (1881) 541,914. The chief town, and the residence of the Nawáb, is RAMPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Rámpur State is a level, fertile tract of country, abundantly supplied with water in its northern division by the Kosila and Náhal rivers. Both of these streams hold a generally southerly course nearly parallel to each other, the Náhal flowing about ten miles east of the Kosila. The southern division of the State is watered by the Rámgangá, which, after receiving the Kosila, flows in a south-easterly direction into Bareilly District. The general slope of the country is from north to south and south-east. Rudrapur, on the northern frontier, has an elevation of 630 feet above sea-level; while at the town of Rámpur, a few miles farther south, the elevation is but 546 feet. The country in the vicinity of the capital is exceedingly rich; and the thriving cultivation bears testimony to the industry and intelligence of the Patháns, the chief occupants of the soil.

Game is fairly abundant in the State. Leopards are not uncommon, and tigers have been frequently killed along the northern frontier. Pig, antelope, *nil-gai*, hares, partridges, quail, wild duck, floriken, and small sand-grouse abound more or less throughout the territory; but snipe are scarce. Rámpur is celebrated for its breed of hounds, originally introduced from Southern India. These hounds are generally of a grey colour, with a smooth coat, and larger than English greyhounds. They are, however, difficult to train. Pathán dealers carry these hounds as far as Rájputána, Central India, and Lower Bengal, where a pair will sometimes fetch as much as £20 or £30.

History.—The first Rohillá Afgháns who settled in this part of India were two brothers, Sháh Alam and Husain Khán, who in the latter part

of the 17th century came to seek service under the Mughal Emperor. The son of the first of these, Dáúd Khán, distinguished himself in the Maráthá wars, and received a grant of land near Budáun. His adopted son, Alí Muhammad, obtained the title of Nawáb and a grant of the greater part of Rohilkhand in 1719. Having offended the Subahdár of Oudh, Safdár Jang, who was jealous at his rapid rise to power, Alí Muhammad was compelled to surrender all his possessions in 1746, and was kept a close prisoner at Delhi for six months, after which he was released and appointed governor of the Mughal Province of Sirhind, where he remained for a year. But taking advantage of the confusion consequent on the invasion of Ahmad Sháh Abdalí, he regained supremacy over Rohilkhand in 1747, and eventually obtained a confirmation of this territory from the son of the Emperor Muhammad Sháh. After the death of Alí Muhammad, the estates were divided among his sons, and the *jágír* of Rámpur Kotera fell to Faiz-ullá, the younger son. On the incursion of the Maráthás, the Rohillá Sardárs, as the chiefs of the family were termed, applied for aid to the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. This was granted on the promise of a payment of 40 *lákhs* of rupees. The Rohillás, however, failed to fulfil their pecuniary obligations, and the Nawáb Wazír turned his arms against them and defeated them in the battle of Míránpur Katra in Sháhjahánpur District, in which Nawáb Hafiz Rahmat Khán was slain. By the intervention of the British authorities, a treaty was concluded in 1774, by which Faiz-ullá Khán was secured in the estate of Rámpur on condition of military service to the Wazír. This obligation was afterwards commuted for a cash payment of £150,000. On the death of Faiz-ullá in 1793, dissensions broke out in the family, the eldest son was murdered, and the *jágír* usurped by a younger son. As the State was held under British guarantee, the aid of British troops was given to the Nawáb of Oudh in ejecting the usurper and installing Ahmad Alí Khán, son of the murdered chieftain.

On the cession of Rohilkhand to the British Government, in 1801, the family were confirmed in their possessions. For his unswerving loyalty during the Mutiny of 1857, Muhummad Yusaf Alí Khán, the Nawáb of Rámpur, received a grant of land assessed at £12,852 in perpetuity, in addition to other honours and an increase of guns in his salute. He was succeeded, in 1864, by his son, the present chief, Nawáb Muhammad Kalb Alí Khán, G.C.S.I., C.I.E., who at the Imperial Assemblage at Delhi received a standard, and an addition for life of two guns to his salute, which is now 15, the salute of the chiefship being 13 guns. The Nawáb has been an invalid since 1875, but still continues to administer the most important affairs of the State. His son and heir-apparent, Nawáb Mushtak Alí Khán, is now (1885) 27 years of age.

Population.—In 1872, a Census taken concurrently with that of the North-Western Provinces returned the population of Rámpur State at 507,004; the Census of 1881 showed a population of 541,914, being an increase of 34,910, or 6·9 per cent., notwithstanding that in the nine years' interval the State suffered, in common with the rest of Rohilkhand, from the severe scarcity of 1877–78, and epidemics of malarious fever in 1878 and 1879.

The details of the Census of 1881 may be thus summarized:—Area, 899 square miles; number of towns 3, and of villages 1070; houses, 103,179. Total population 514,914, namely, males 285,359, and females 259,555. Average density, 603 persons per square mile; persons per town or village, 480; persons per house, 5·2.

Religion.—The population is entirely divided between Hindus and Muhammadans, the former numbering 302,989, and the latter 238,925. Among the Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 16,029; Rájputs, 8802; Káyasths, 6487; and Baniyás, 9341. Of the lower castes, the most important numerically are the following:—Chamár, 47,362; Lodh, 40,125; Kurmí, 35,319; Málí, 20,879; Kachhí, 17,951; Kahár, 16,065; Ahar, 15,193; Bhangí, 9374; Gadariá, 6770; Kumbhár, 5136; Dhobí, 4857; Juláha, 4546; Nái, 4166; Bhurjí, 3758; the remainder being made up of castes numbering less than 3000 members each. Out of a total Muhammadan population of 238,925, only 528 are returned as Shiás; the remainder, 238,397, belong to the Sunní sect of the Hanafi rite. They are said to be strict in the observance of their religious duties, and rather bigoted. The majority of the Muhammadans are the descendants of Afghán immigrants who joined the standard of Dáúd Khán and Alí Muhammad in the first half of the 18th century. Sayyids are held in great veneration by the other classes of Muhammadans, as the reputed lineal descendants of the Prophet; they and the Patháns occasionally intermarry. Shaiks, on the other hand, who are largely composed of the descendants of low-caste Hindu converts, are looked down upon by the other Muhammadans, and they and the Patháns never intermarry. There are but few Mughals in the State. Three towns contain a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants—namely, RAMPUR town, 74,250; TANDA, 9860; and SHAHABAD, 8200.

Agriculture.—The total area of Rámpur State is 899·2 square miles, of which 593·4 square miles are returned as under cultivation; 281·6 square miles as uncultivated; 21·6 square miles as rent-free; and 2·6 square miles as the area of Rámpur town. All the crops grown in the neighbouring District of Moradábád are also grown in Rámpur, with the exception of indigo and poppy. A considerable advance in tillage has taken place during the last forty years. A large proportion of the grass jungles in the northern *tahsíls* of Suár and Biláspur is now under

cultivation, and it is believed that at no very distant period nothing but absolutely barren tracts will be left uncultivated. A decrease in the cultivated area has, however, recently taken place in a few villages on the *tarái* border, owing to the malaria that prevails there; and in a few other villages along the banks of the Rámgangá and Kosi rivers, owing to unusually heavy floods. The Bahgul Canal irrigates portions of the Biláspur *tahsíl*. An irrigation canal from the Kosila to the Rámgangá, a length of 37 miles, is under construction by the State.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal exports of Rámpur State are sugar and rice, sent to the west; hides to the east, chiefly to Agra and Calcutta; and *khes* (a kind of damask), for which the capital is famous, to all parts of India. The imports comprise piece-goods from Calcutta, salt from Rájputána, and spices for local consumption. There is a considerable trade in elephants and horses, and enormous numbers of goats are brought from the western Districts for food. Besides sugar-refining and *khes*-weaving, the only other manufacture worthy of note is a rough glazed pottery, which has recently attracted much attention. It differs from the blue and white pottery of Múltán, the blues used being much lighter in shade and tinged with green. It is said that the peculiar clay of which alone this pottery can be made, is only found in a tank near Rámpur town. Eight firms were employed in this industry in 1881–82.

Administration.—The total income of the State in 1880–81 amounted to £158,657, of which £155,805 was derived from the land; the expenditure in the same year was £151,184, including £59,057 for civil administration, £35,218 for public works, £26,693 for troops and police, and £15,562 for the personal expenses of the Nawáb and his family. There are 3 courts in the State, following the principles of Hindu or Muhammadan law, according to the religion of the parties. In criminal matters, the provisions of the Indian Penal Code are carried out as far as practicable. All sentences of death require confirmation by the Nawáb. The civil courts of first instance are of two kinds—one for suits for debt, and the other for claims relating to inheritance, etc. There are 2 appellate courts, while a final appeal lies to the Nawáb in person. The military force of Rámpur ordinarily consists of 28 guns, with 300 artillerymen; 570 cavalry; 300 military foot police; and 730 'miscellaneous foot.' The State contains a jail, with a daily average of about 400 prisoners; 2 post-offices; 5 dispensaries; and 10 State schools, with 316 pupils in 1881, besides 152 indigenous schools (*maktabs*), with 1048 pupils. Rámpur is famous for its religious instruction, and many students come from Bengal, Afghánistán, and even Bokhára. No tuition-fee is taken from these visitors; on the contrary, if they live in a mosque, the people of the

neighbourhood support them, and they always receive a share of the public charities.

Medical Aspects.—No regular meteorological observations are taken in Rámpur; but it is believed that the rainfall, owing to the proximity of the State to the hills, is greater than in the neighbouring British Districts of Moradábád and Bareilly. The climate is also said to be cooler for the same reason. The northern part of Rámpur adjoins the *tarái* at the foot of the Himálayas, and shares its characteristics. This part of the country is a marshy forest, overrun with jungle and grass of such luxuriant growth as to conceal a man on horseback. The air in consequence is pestilential, except in the coldest period of winter, and during the heaviest rains.

Rámpur.—Capital of Rámpur State, North-Western Provinces, and the residence of the Nawáb, situated in lat. 28° 48′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 5′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Kosila river, about 18 miles due east from Moradábád town, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Another metalled road runs south-east to Bareilly. Population (1881) 74,250, namely, males 36,355, and females 37,895. Muhammadans number 56,166, and Hindus 18,084. The town is enclosed by a broad, dense, nearly circular bamboo hedge, from 8 to 10 miles in circumference; it has only eight openings, at which military guards are stationed. The Jáma Masjid or cathedral mosque, and the small but crowded Safdarganj square, are situated in the centre of this circular area. To the north-west are the *Díwán-i-Am*, or reception hall; the *Khurshíd Manzil* or sun-palace, where European guests are accommodated; the *Machhi Bhawan*, or the Nawáb's private palace, and the *zanána* buildings. The old fort built by Nawáb Faiz-ullá Khán is now used for native guests. The tomb of Faiz-ullá Khán, situated north of the town, consists of a raised masonry terrace, shaded by trees.

Rámpur has all the appearance of a thriving town. The people have a well-to-do look; the streets are crowded with busy passengers; and the *bázárs* are lined with prosperous-looking shops. The streets were formerly paved with brick, but the principal thoroughfares have now been metalled with *kankar*, at a considerable cost. The trade in and manufacture of pottery and damask (*khes*) have been alluded to in the article on Rámpur State. The only other manufactures are sword-blades and jewellery. Elevation above sea-level, 546 feet.

Rámpur.—Town in Deoband *tahsíl*, Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 48′ 15″ N., long. 77° 29′ 35″ E. Stands on a low site, 14 miles south of Saháranpur town, on the old Delhi road. Population (1881) 7951, namely, Hindus 4240, and Muhammadans 3711. A metalled and well-drained road runs through the town, but the lanes are narrow and uneven. The town contains

numerous brick-built houses, with handsome fronts, especially those belonging to the Jain merchants known as Saraugís, who carry on an active trade in grain. Handsome new Jain temple, with gilt spire. The town is said to have been founded by Rájá Rám, and captured by Sálár Masaúd. Manufacture of glass bangles, which employs 6 large ovens. Religious fair in June, at the tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Ibráhím, attracts a large number of devotees. *Parganá* school, police station, post-office. The town contains several gardens, and is surrounded by numerous groves. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Rámpur.—Village in Alíganj *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Alíganj 4½ miles north, from Etah town 32 miles east. Busy little trading town, but chiefly remarkable as the residence of Rájá Rámachandra Sen, a lineal descendant of the last Rahtor Rájá of Kanauj, and tenth in descent from Rájá Rám Sahai, who founded the town in 1456 A.D. The Rájá of Rámpur ranks as head of the Rahtor clan in this part of India. The village is commonly known as Rámpur Rájá. Population (1881) 4670, principally Bráhmans and Kachhís. Market on Sundays and Wednesdays. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Rámpur. — Town in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, and the winter residence of the Rájá. Lat. 31° 27′ N., long. 77° 40′ E. Mentioned by Thornton as standing at the base of a lofty mountain, overhanging the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and 138 feet above the stream. Cliffs surround the town and confine the air, so that during summer the radiation from the rocks renders the heat intolerable. The houses rise in tiers, many of them being built of stone. The town is famous for its fine shawls, the well-known Rámpur *chadars*. The Rájá's palace, at the north-east corner of the town, consists of several buildings, with carved wooden balconies, exhibiting marks of Chinese style. The Gúrkhas did much damage to the town and its trade during the period of their supremacy; but it has begun to recover under British protection. The Rájá resides at Rámpur during the winter, and retires to the cooler station of Saráhan for the hottest months. Elevation above sea-level, 3300 feet.

Rámpur. — *Zamíndárí* estate attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 190 square miles; villages, 101; houses, 3910. Population (1881) 13,248, namely, males 6776, and females 6472; density of population, 69·7 persons per square mile. Chief products — rice, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. *Sál, sáj, dháurá*, ebony, and other timber trees grow in the forests; iron-ore is found in many parts. The estate was originally granted by Chhatra Sá, Rájá of Sambalpur, in 1630, to Prán Náth, a Rájput. In 1835, some relations of Rájá Náráyan Singh were murdered by the brothers Surendra Sá

and Udant Sá, who were condemned to imprisonment for life. While undergoing their sentence at Hazáríbágh, they were released by the mutineers in 1857, and at once stirred up rebellion in SAMBALPUR. Dariás Singh having joined the rebel forces of Surendra Sá, was outlawed and his estate confiscated. He, however, came under the terms of the amnesty, and the estate was restored to him. On his death in 1870 he was succeeded by his grandson, Bakhtawár Singh, the present chief. The annual income of the chief is estimated at £180; tribute of £70 is payable to the British Government. Rámpur village contains a school, with an average attendance of 40 pupils.

Rámpur.—*Parganá* in Behar *tahsíl*, Partábgarh (Pratábgarh) District, Oudh, extending from the river Sai on the north almost to the Ganges on the south. Area, 179 square miles, of which 79 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 73,962, namely, males 36,374, and females 37,588. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 191, all held in *tálukdári* tenure; forming two estates, owned by the Bisen Kshattriya Rájá of Rámpur, and the Kanhpuria Kshattriya Rájá of Káithaula.

Rámpurá.—Walled town in Tonk State, Rájputána, now known as Alígarh-Rámpura. Lat. 25° 57′ 53″ N., long. 76° 7′ 26″ E.; 70 miles south of Jaipur (Jeypore), 90 south-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerábád), 145 west of Agra. Captured by the British in 1804, restored to Holkar in 1805. In 1818, when Holkar's dominions had been conquered by the British, Rámpurá was added as a free gift to the possessions which had been guaranteed in 1817 to Amír Khán, the founder of the Tonk family. Population (1881) 3378.

Rámpurá.—Petty State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 4½ square miles. There are 8 shareholders. The revenue is estimated at £558; and tribute of £142, 4s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Soil rich, yielding the better kinds of crops.

Rámpurá.—The site of famous Jain temples, situated in the Sadri Pass, on the western border of Udaipur State, Rájputána. The temples, which comprise two buildings sacred to Párasnáth, are said to have been erected by Dharma Seth in 1440, during the reign of Rána Kumbhu, at a cost of 75 *lákhs* of rupees (£750,000). They are built of sandstone from the quarries at Narlai, 13 miles distant. The first or smaller temple consists of an oblong building raised high above the ground, with only one door, opposite which is the image of Párasnáth, carved out of black marble, the only one of that colour in the place. The outside is handsomely carved and covered with figures. The larger temple covers a rectangular piece of ground, measuring 260 by 244 feet, enclosed by an outer wall, having 86 *sikras* or shrines, each containing an image of Párasnáth, built against its internal face. The entrance is at the west, with a flight of steps up the plinth about 12 feet high, whence a beautiful view of the interior is obtained. Immedi-

ately in front is the largest and most finely carved dome, three storeys in height, with a figure of Indra and eleven others, suspended, as it were, from the roof. Underneath is a figure of Ganesh. In the centre is an open colonnade, with no less than 420 richly-sculptured pillars, supporting a roof with a shrine at each corner, each of which also contains a figure of Párasnáth. This colonnade surrounds an open space in the centre of the entire enclosure in which stands the principal shrine, beautifully carved both inside and out. It has four doors, opposite each of which is a life-sized figure of Párasnáth, carved out of white marble. There are said to be huge vaults underneath the temple, containing many more images of Párasnáth. Upwards of ten thousand pilgrims meet at these temples during the fairs held in March and September.

Rámpur Beauleah.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Rájsháhí District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ganges, in lat. 24° 22′ 5″ N., and long. 88° 38′ 55″ E. The seat of administration was transferred to this town from Náttor in 1825. Rámpur Beauleah was first selected by the Dutch, in the early part of the last century, for the establishment of a factory; and subsequently for many years it was the head-quarters of an English commercial Residency. The town is of modern growth, and is built for the most part on river alluvion; it is liable to encroachments of the Ganges, and has suffered severely from inundations. Population (1881) 19,228, namely, males 10,210, and females 9018. Hindus number 9522; Muhammadans, 9632; and 'others,' 74. Municipal income (1876–77), £1111: 1883–84, £1909, of which £1741 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 5¾d. per head (20,024) of the population within municipal limits. Rámpur Beauleah conducts a large traffic by river with the railway station of Kushtiá on the opposite bank of the Ganges. In 1876–77 the total exports were valued at £342,000, chiefly silk (£251,000), rice (£21,000), oil-seeds (£7000), hides (£6000), and indigo (£3000). The total imports were valued at £199,000, including sugar (£109,000), salt (£24,000), and piece-goods (£18,000). Owing to a change in the system of registration, no later trade returns are available.

Rámpur Hát.—Sub-division of Bírbhúm District, Bengal, transferred from the neighbouring District of Murshidábád in January 1873. Area, 669 square miles; number of villages, 1368; houses, 65,782. Population (1881), males 148,266, and females 162,241; total, 310,507. Classified according to religion, there were — Hindus, 220,328; Muhammadans, 80,797; Christians, 9; Santáls, 9146; other aborigines, 227. Average density of population, 464 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·04; persons per village, 227; houses per square mile, 106; persons per house, 4·7. This Sub-division com-

prises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Rámpur Hát, Maureswar, and Nalhátí. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with a regular police force of 57 officers and men, and 2670 rural police or village watchmen. Separate cost of Sub-divisional administration, £6043.

Rámpur Hát.—Head-quarters of the Rámpur Hát Sub-division, Birbhúm District, Bengal; situated in the north-east of the District, in lat. 24° 9′ N., and long. 87° 49′ 30″ E. Station on the East Indian Railway, 136 miles from Howrah.

Rámpur Khánpur.—Village in Háta *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, 38 miles from Gorakhpur town.

Rámpur Mathura.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 1 mile east of the Chauka and 3 miles west of the Gogra river, 44 miles south-east of Sítápur town. Population (1881) 2315, residing in 383 mud-built houses. Market; Government school.

Ramrí.—Island off the coast of Lower Burma, included in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan. It contains the townships of RAMRI and KYAUK-PYU, in the latter of which is KYAUK-PYU TOWN, the head-quarters of the District. The island is crossed by a range of mountains, with a general north-north-west and south-south-east direction, and an elevation above the plain of from 500 to 1500 feet; highest point, 3000 feet. The chief products of Ramrí are timber, rice, indigo, salt, and sugar. Limestone and iron are also found on the island. Ramrí and Cheduba originally formed a tract known as Ramrí District, but both are now incorporated with Kyauk-pyú District. Lat. 18° 51′ to 19° 24′ N., long. 93° 28′ to 94° E.

Ramrí.—Township in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. Area, about 426 square miles, occupying the southern portion of the island of the same name. Chief products—rice, indigo, and sugar; in the manufacture of the last, 252 mills were employed in 1874. Limestone is found on the northern and western coasts, and petroleum on the eastern. This township comprises 23 revenue circles, viz. Nga-ko-byin, Thin-ga-nek, Hun-taung-bek, Hun-myauk-bek, Kha-maung-kyaung, Kyauk-kyaung (South), Kyauk-kyaung (North), Le-daung, Kan-daing, Ran-bauk, Kan-gaw, Alay-kyaung, Ran-bai Myo-ma (East), Ran-bai Myo-ma (South), Ran-bai Myo-ma (Central), Ran-byeh-ngeh, Kyauk-twe, Nig-yaung-det, Rabadin, Ran-thek, Thin-ba-kaing, Zi-kywon, and Sa-gú. In 1876-77, the population, composed mainly of Arakanese, numbered 46,838. Population (1881) 43,329; gross revenue, £9604. Head-quarters at RAMRI TOWN.

Ramrí.—Chief town of Ramrí township, Kyauk-pyú District, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 19° 6′ 30″ N., and long. 93° 53′ 45″ E., near the eastern coast of Ramrí Island, about 13 miles up the Tan, a tidal river, navigable thus far by good-sized boats. The town stands on the eastern

side of an amphitheatre formed by numerous low ranges of partially wooded hills, separated by small hollows and ravines. During the existence of the Arakan kingdom it was the seat of the governor of the island, and was then, and is still, called by the Arakanese 'Tan-myo.' After the Burmese conquest, it was retained as the head-quarters of the governor, but was known to the Burmese as 'Yan-bai-myo,' and to the Arakanese as 'Ran-breh-myo,' which name has been corrupted by Europeans into Ramrí.

Ramrí town was probably in its most flourishing condition about 1805 A.D., when its inhabitants carried on an extensive trade with Bengal, Bassein, and Tavoy. A few years later, it suffered much from the rebellion of Khyin-bran and from the retaliatory measures of the Burmese. Khyin-bran appears to have had many adherents in the town; and, after his defeat, large numbers of the inhabitants were killed or forced to fly the country. During the first Anglo-Burmese war, the place was occupied without resistance by the troops under General Macbean, the Burmese having evacuated the judiciously constructed defences before the arrival of the British force. One of these defences was an unusually strong stockade, within which all civil and military business had been carried on. On the conquest of Arakan by the British, Ramrí was made the head-quarters of a District of the same name, and so remained until 1852, when, in consequence of An and Ramrí being joined together, Kyauk-pyú, till then the head-quarters of An, became the chief town of the new District.

In 1853 the population was estimated at about 9000, of whom nearly two-thirds were Arakanese. On the removal of the head-quarters to Kyauk-pyú, Ramrí sank to the position of the chief station of a township, and has decreased in importance. In 1876-77 it had only 4028 inhabitants, who carried on a coasting trade with Chittagong, Sandoway, and Bassein. In 1881 the population was 3461. The public buildings include a court-house, police station, and an old and new market-place.

Rám Sanehí.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámnagar, on the east by Nawábganj, on the south by Muzaffarkhána, and on the west by Haidargarh and Bara Banki *tahsíls*. Area, 588 square miles, of which 375 are cultivated. Population (1869) 385,410; (1881) 354,706, namely, males 177,477, and females 177,229. Decrease of population in nine years, 30,704, or 8·4 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 296,464; Muhammadans, 57,862; Jains, 373; and 'others,' 7. Of the 625 towns and villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 374 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 174 from five hundred to a thousand; 75 from one to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand. This *tahsíl* comprises the 5 *parganás* of Surájpur, Daryábád,

Rudauli, Basrohi, and Mawái Maholára. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; and a regular police force of 67 officers and men, besides a rural police or village watch.

Rámtál.—Lake on the Rámthi *nadí* in Dárjíling District, Bengal. As measured on the map, it is 550 yards long, by about 200 yards broad. For 30 or 40 yards from each bank, in the upper part of the lake, dead stumps of trees *in situ* appear above the surface of the water, showing that the Rámtál has increased in depth within the time that such timber can remain under water without falling to pieces. For more than a quarter of a mile extends a delta of comparatively modern formation, composed of slate shingle, yearly encroaching on the area of the lake, which, on account of its recent origin, cannot be assigned to glacial action in any form. It seems most probable that both the lake and the huge blocks of sandstone filling its bed are due to landslips from the hill above, which have dammed up the original bed of the stream.

Rámtek.—North-eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1112 square miles; number of towns and villages, 445; houses, 28,858. Population (1881) 147,351, namely, males 74,460, and females 72,891. Average density of population, 132·5 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 57,481, with an average of 8 acres of cultivated and cultivable land to each. Of a total area of 1112 square miles, 471 square miles are held revenue free. Total area assessed for Government revenue, 641 square miles, of which 395 square miles are returned as cultivated; 114 square miles as cultivable; and 132 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £19,815, or an average of 1s. 6⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, etc., £350,030, or an average of 2s. 3⅝d. per cultivated acre. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal and 2 civil courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*), and 11 outposts (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 105 men, besides a village watch or rural police of 863 *chaukídárs*.

Rámtek. — Town and municipality in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Rámtek *tashíl*. Lat. 21° 24′ N., long. 79° 20′ E.; 24 miles north of Nágpur city. Situated on a gravelly soil, south of a ridge separated by only a few miles of cultivation from the hill and jungle extending to the Sátpuras. Population (1881) 7814, namely, Hindus, 6978; Muhammadans, 614; Jains, 101; non-Hindu aborigines, 121. Municipal income (1882–83), £618, of which £594 was derived from taxation, chiefly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6¼d. per head. Noted for its cultivation of *pán*, which was introduced three centuries ago by an ancestor of the present owner of

the gardens; large quantities are exported to Seoní, Chhindwárá, Jabalpur, Berar, and (since the opening of the railway) to Bombay. The trunk road between Jabalpur and Nágpur runs 4 miles west of the town; and from Mansar, on that line, a good road leads through Rámtek to the village of Ambála, where the fair held every November, on the banks of a small lake, attracts nearly 100,000 persons. An excellent bungalow stands on the hill 500 feet above the plain. The official buildings are at the west end of the town.

Rámtek has always been held a holy place. The oldest temple appears to be that on the north side of the hill, built of uncemented stones, and, like many ruins in Nágpur and Bhandárá Districts, referred to Hemár Panth, a Bráhman, or, as some say, a Rákshasa. Near it are the modern Parwár temples, a handsome group, enclosed in well-fortified courts. The centre of interest, however, is at the west end of the hill, where the temple of Ráma (Rámchandra), the tutelary god, stands conspicuous above the rest, overtopping the walls of the citadel. On the south and west the hill is naturally scarped. The north side has a double line of defence. The inner line belongs to the citadel; the outer one turns towards the south, and, crossing a narrow valley which leads down to Ambála, is continued along the edge of the hill till it joins, at the extreme west point, the more recent walls of the citadel. This outer line, now in ruins, was strongly, though rudely, built by piling ponderous stones on one another. Within it was a considerable village, of which a few traces yet remain.

The citadel is at the western extremity of the enclosure, with the chief temples at the apex of the angle. The Ambála road runs under a small wooded hill, crowned by a fortified summer palace, the work of a Rájá of the Súrya-Vansí or Solar race. Then, passing through the town, it winds round the southern ridge of the hill till it is confronted by the embankment of the tank, along which Raghují I. built a line of defences, with strong bastions flanking the gateway. Within this lies Ambála, with its lake, bathing *gháts*, and temples, each belonging to an old Maráthá family. From the western corner of the tank, flights of stone stairs, half a mile in length, lead up to the citadel, passing through the ruined outer line by a narrow gateway. By these steps all pilgrims ascend to worship at the temples. Near the top, on the right, is an ancient open *báolí* or well, with a *dharmsála* or rest-house attached. To the left stand two old temples of Krishna in the form of Narasinha, and opposite to them a plain mosque, built in commemoration of a courtier of Aurangzeb. A flight of steps then leads up to the outer gate, a massive building constructed, like all the outer walls belonging to the citadel, by the first Maráthá ruler. Inside, on the right, are Hindu temples of Náráyan; on the left, temples to which Parwárs annually resort. Within the second line of walls, pierced by the

Singhpur gate, which is said to have been built by the Súrya-Vansís, the Maráthás had their arsenal, of which only some ruins of the wall remain. The third court is reached through a fine gateway called the *Bhairava Darwáza;* in this part the walls and bastions restored by the Maráthás are in good repair. The innermost court has on either side the dwellings of the servants of the temples; and at the farther end, the *Gokul Darwáza,* a fantastic building leading to the shrines of Ganpati and Hanumán; and lastly, built on the edge of the bluff, the temple of Ráma. From this inner court another series of stone steps lead down into the town of Rámtek. In the early Maráthá times, two fine old *báolís,* or wells, were discovered here, which had for ages been covered over with earth.

Rámu.—Village and police outpost station in the Sub-division of Cox's Bázár, Chittagong District, Bengal; situated in lat. 21° 25′ N., and long. 92° 8′ 25″ E., upon the Chittagong and Arakan road. Large mart for local trade. Telegraph station; distant 85 miles from Chittagong town.

Ránághát.—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53 to 23° 20′ N., and long. 88° 22′ 30″ to 88° 48′ E. Area, 427 square miles; towns and villages, 511; houses, 52,287. Population (1881) 241,205, namely, males 118,430, and females 122,775; proportion of males in total population, 49·1 per cent. Hindus numbered 141,132; Muhammadans, 99,032; and Christians, 41. Average number of persons per square mile, 565; villages per square mile, 1·20; houses per square mile, 129; persons per village, 472; inmates per house, 4·9. This Sub-division comprises the four *thánás* or police circles of Ránághát, Santipur, Chágda, and Haringhátá. In 1883 it contained 2 civil and 9 magisterial courts, with a regular police numbering 193 officers and men, and a village watch numbering 560.

Ránághát.—Town, municipality, and railway station, situated on the Churní river, Nadiyá District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Ránághát Sub-division. Lat. 23° 10′ 40″ N., long. 88° 36′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 8683, namely, Hindus 7318, and Muhammadans 1365. Municipal income (1883-84), £655, of which £579 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head of population.

Ránásam. — Native State within the British Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency; situated in the Rehwár Sub-division. Population (1872) 5329, and (1881) 4840. Area cultivated, 16,612 acres. The principal agricultural products are millets and pulses. Transit duties are levied in the State. The chief is descended from the Ráos of Chandravati, near Mount Abu. His ancestor, Jaipál, migrated from Chandravati to Harol in Mahi Kántha in 1227; and thence, in the 13th generation, Thákur Prithwi Ráj moved to Ghorwára, having received a grant of the neighbouring tracts, which in the course

of time were divided among the different branches of the family. The present (1884) chief, Thákur Hamir Singh, succeeded his father Waje Singh, a Rehwár Rájput of the Pramára clan, who died in 1879. He administers the State in person. Estimated revenue, £1500; tribute is paid of £37 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £75 to Edar, and 6s. to the British Government. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There is one school in the State, with 27 pupils in 1883.

Ránchi.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Lohárdagá District, and residence of the Commissioner of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, Bengal; situated on the high central plateau of Lohárdagá, in lat. 23° 22′ 37″ N., and long. 85° 22′ 6″ E., with a general elevation of 2100 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 18,443, namely, males 10,101, and females 8342. Hindus number 9205; Muhammadans, 5392; and 'others,' 3846. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £1032. Average incidence of taxation, 9⅝d. per head of the population (15,566) within municipal limits.

Ránchi is simply a cluster of hamlets, from one of the smallest of which the station takes its name. The soil, being a mixture of clay, gravel, and sand, is well suited for the growth of European vegetables, fruits, and flowers. A considerable money-lending business is carried on by bankers from Márwár; the town also forms a distributing centre, for Lohárdagá and the Tributary States, of large quantities of cotton goods imported from Calcutta. Chief buildings—Commissioner's and Deputy Commissioner's offices, court-houses, jail, school-house, and small library maintained by public subscription; circuit house and *dák* bungalow; two churches and a charity hospital.

Ránder.—Town in the Chorási Sub-division, Surat District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 12′ N., and long. 72° 51′ E., on the right bank of the Tápti, 2 miles above Surat city. Population (1872) 10,280; (1881) 9416, namely, Hindus, 5133; Muhammadans, 3457; Jains, 661; and Pársís, 165. Municipal income, £1589 in 1882–83. Ránder is supposed to be one of the oldest places in Southern Gujarát. It is said to have been a place of importance about the beginning of the Christian era, when Broach was the chief seat of commerce in Western India. In the early part of the 13th century, a colony of Arab merchants and sailors is stated to have attacked and expelled the Jains, at that time ruling at Ránder, and to have converted their temples into mosques. Under the name of Náyatás, the Ránder Arabs traded to distant countries. In 1514, the traveller Barbosa described Ránder as a rich and agreeable place of the Moors (Náyatás), possessing very large and fine ships, and trading with Malacca, Bengal, Tawasery (Tenasserim), Pegu, Martaban, and Sumatra in all sorts of spices, drugs, silk, musk, benzoin, and porcelain. In 1530, the Portuguese,

after sacking Surat, took Ránder. With the growing importance of Surat, Ránder declined in prosperity, and, by the close of the 16th century, became a port dependent on Surat. At present, Borahs of the Sunní sect carry on trade westwards with the Mauritius, and eastwards with Rangoon, Moulmein, Siam, and Singapore. By the opening of the Tápti Bridge in 1877, Ránder was closely connected with Surat city. Post-office and dispensary.

Rándhia.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated 18 miles south-west of Bábra. Area, 3 square miles. Population (1881) 539. Rándhia consists of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £250.

Raneh.—Town in Hatta *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3037, namely, Hindus, 2787; Muhammadans, 165; and Jains, 85.

Rángámáti. — Ancient town in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 1′ 10″ N., and long. 88° 13′ 11″ E., on the right bank of the Bhágírathí, 14 miles below Barhampur.

The yellow clay here rises into bluffs 40 feet high, which form the only elevated ground in the neighbourhood, and are very conspicuous from the river. Few remains have been found except pottery and the traces of buildings, tanks, and wells; but Rángámáti is rich in traditional history. The legend respecting the origin of the name, which means 'red earth,' is that Bibisan, brother of Rávana, being invited to a feast by a poor Bráhman at Rángámáti, rained gold on the ground as a token of gratitude. By others the miracle is referred to Bhu Deb, who, through the power of his *tapasyá*, rained gold. Captain Layard, *Bengal Asiatic Society's Journal*, 1853, says:—'Rángámáti, anciently named the city of Kansonapurí [*sic*], is said to have been built many hundred years ago by a famous Mahárájá of Bengal, named Kurun Sen, who resided chiefly at Gaur. Many interesting spots, connected with legends and traditions of the ancient city, are still pointed out, such as the Demon's Mount and the Rájbári, or palace of Kurun Sen. The remains of the greater part of the Rájbári are distinctly traceable on three sides, although now under cultivation; the fourth has disappeared in the river. On the eastern face of the Rájbári, there stood, a few years ago, the ruins of a very old gateway, with two large entrances, called by the people of the neighbouring village of Jadupur, the *burj*, or tower. It has now entirely disappeared, having crumbled away with the falling bank into the rapid stream below.' Captain Layard also gives the name as Karn-sona-ka-ghar. This would correctly represent Karna-suvarna, the name of an ancient kingdom in Bengal, visited by the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang (*circ.* 639 A.D.). This kingdom apparently included Bardwan and Bírbhúm. The name is the same, though Captain Layard's site is

probably that of a later capital. See also Fergusson, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, new series, vol. vi. p. 248; and Captain F. Wilford, *Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, ix. p. 89.

Mr. Long, in his essay on 'The Banks of the Bhágírathí,' states that Rángámáti formed one of the ten *faujdáris* into which Bengal was divided under Musalmán rule. Its Hindu *zamíndár* was a considerable person; and on the occasion of the great *Punyá* at Mutijhil in 1767, received a *khilát* worth Rs. 7278, or as much as the *zamíndár* of Nadiyá.

The site of Rángámáti was at one time selected, in preference to Barhampur, as being a healthy spot for the erection of barracks. In 1846 it was still resorted to as a sanitarium, and was a favourite place for picnic parties and shooting excursions; snipe and partridge abound. The undulations of the land and the general scenery reminded Mr. Long of England. In 1881–82, however, Rángámáti was declared to be the most unhealthy spot in the whole of the District; the great majority of the inhabitants being struck down by malarial fever. The East India Company once had a silk factory at Rángámáti, which was sold in 1835, together with 1500 *bíghas* of land attached to it, for £2100.

Rángámáti.—Administrative head-quarters of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, as well as the head-quarters of the Bengal frontier force; pleasantly situated on the banks of the Karnaphulí river. A Gúrkha settlement established here in 1872–74 proved a failure, owing to the climate, and the colony was broken up in 1877. The country round has been cleared of jungle within the last few years. A number of native gentlemen have formed themselves into an agricultural company, and taken up lands close to the station. The land is being rapidly reclaimed, and brought under cultivation; and it is hoped that, in the course of a few years, by these means, the sanitary condition of the place will improve considerably. Government middle-class English school. The telegraph line between Rángámáti and Chittagong was closed in May 1875. Lat. 22° 41′ 5″ N., long. 91° 49′ 50″ E.

Rángámáti.—Village in Goálpárá District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 19′ N., and long. 90° 48′ E., on the north or right bank of the Brahmaputra. An important outpost of the Muhammadans at the beginning of the last century. The ruins of their fortifications can still be seen. An old mosque near the village is still in perfect condition, with a deep well containing at least 20 feet of water at all seasons of the year. A flourishing tea-garden has been recently established here, and the old mosque is now used as the residence of the planter.

Rangánadi.—River in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam,

which rises in the Daphlá Hills, and, flowing south, empties itself into the Subánsirí below Gorámur. It is navigable by small boats all the year through, and is largely used by traders from Gauháti and Goálpárá, who come up in the cold season to buy rape-seed and *mejáti*, as well as by tea-planters in the north of the Sub-division for exporting their tea.

Rangaswámi.—Peak in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency; situated near the Gazzalháthi Pass. Lat. 11° 27′ 20″ N., long. 77° 20′ E.; height above sea-level, 5937 feet.

Rángi.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Bráhmapurí *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces, comprising 39 villages. Area, 112 square miles. Population (1881) 4562. The soil is sandy, producing rice, and in some places sugar-cane. The eastern portion is hilly, with a good deal of teak, besides *sáj* and *mahuá* trees. Rángi, the principal village, situated in lat. 20° 21′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., has a weekly market; and at Ingara, an ancient temple contains a sculpture of a warrior with a short straight sword and shield.

Rángia.—Village in Kámrúp District, Assam; on the Baráliya river, about 20 miles north-north-west of Gauháti. Lat. 26° 26′ N., long. 91° 40′ E. A centre of local trade. The village is on the line of route to Diwángirí in Bhután, and was the head-quarters of the military force engaged in operations against the Bhutiás in this direction during the campaign of 1864-65.

Rángír.—Ancient village in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 22 miles south-east of Ságar town. The fair, held every March, attracts nearly 70,000 persons.

Rangmágiri.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, on the southern slope of the Mimanrám mountain. The scene of the murder of the Survey coolie in March 1871, which led to the Gáro expedition of the following year, and the ultimate subjection of the hill tribes to British rule. The path from the station of Tura, communicating with the police outpost at Rayak, passes through this village.

Rangoon (*Ran-kún*, now called *Hanthawadi*).—British District in the Pegu Division, Lower Burma; occupying the seaboard from the mouth of the Sittang (Tsit-taung) river westwards to the To or China Bakir mouth of the Irawadi; situated between 16° and 17° N. lat., and between 95° and 96° E. long. Known to the ancients as Bokháradesa, a name which survives in China Bakir. Area, 4236 square miles. Population (1881) 427,720 persons. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Tharawadi and Shwe-gyin, on the east by Shwe-gyin, and on the west by Thonegwa. On the first formation of Rangoon District it included Bhaw-ru, a strip of country extending along the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma Hills from the Bhawrugale stream to Taung-ngú. In 1864, Bhaw-ru was added to Taung-ngú, and in 1866, transferred to

Shwe-gyin; subsequently the Kawliya circle was joined to Shwe-gyin, and the Thongay circle to Henzada; still later, a large tract in the west was cut off to form portion of Thonegwa; and in 1883 the eastern and south-eastern townships, Pegu, Hlaygu, and Syriam, were taken from it and formed into the new District of Pegu. The head-quarters of Rangoon or Hanthawadi District are at RANGOON CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Rangoon District consists of a vast plain extending along the sea-coast, and gradually rising towards the north, where it is broken about the centre by the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas. South of the Pegu river, in the greater portion of the Hlaing valley, and for some distance above Rangoon city, the country is intersected by numerous tidal creeks, many of which are navigable by large boats and some by steamers. The chief of these are—the BAW-LAY, with its branch, the Pa-kwun, communicating with the Irawadi, and practicable during the rains for river steamers; the PAN-HLAING, which leaves the Irawadi at Nyauṅg-don and joins the Hlaing a few miles above Rangoon city, forming in the rains the usual route of river steamers from Rangoon; the Tha-kwá-pin (popularly 'BASSEIN CREEK'), which connects the Rangoon river with the To or China Bakir, and is navigable at all seasons, river steamers using it in the dry season when the Pan-hlaing is closed.

The Pegu Yomas attain their highest elevation, viz. 2000 feet, in the extreme north of Rangoon District, and, a few miles lower down, divide into two main branches with many subsidiary spurs. The western branch, which has a general south-south-west direction, separates the valleys of the Hlaing and Pagan-daung rivers, and except in the extreme south marks the boundary between Rangoon and Pegu Districts. After rising into the irregularly shaped limestone hill called Taung-nyo, a little south of lat. 17° N., it forms the laterite hills round the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda; and beyond the Pegu river, it merges into the alluvial plains of the delta in Pegu District, being last traceable in the rocks in the Hmaw-wún stream. The eastern branch of the Pegu Yomas has a south-south-east direction, and finally disappears south of the Pegu river. The slopes of the main range are, as a rule, steep, and the valleys sharply excavated.

The principal river in the District is the HLAING, which rises near Prome as the Zay, and, entering Rangoon District in about lat. 17° 30′ N., flows south-south-east, falling into the sea, in about lat. 16° 30′ N., under the name of the Rangoon river. It is navigable at all seasons by the largest sea-going vessels as far as Rangoon city. Its chief tributaries in Rangoon District are the Ok-kan, Magoyi, Hmaw-bí, and Lien-gun. On the west, the Baw-lay, Pan-hlaing, and other tidal creeks connect it with the Irawadi. The PUGUN-DAUNG rises in the southern spurs of the Pegu Yomas, and falls into the Pegu river at the city of

Rangoon, after a south-easterly course of 53 miles through a valley rich in valuable timber, and well cultivated towards the south. The Pegu River rises in the eastern slopes of the main range, and falls into the Rangoon river at Rangoon city; it is navigable during the rains by river steamers up to Pegu, and the tide is felt for some miles above that town. It is connected with the Sittang (Tsit-taung) by a canal with locks.

The principal trees found in the District are the mangrove, largely used for fuel; *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia hypoleuca); *ka-nyin* (Dipterocarpus alatus); or *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus); *pyin-ka-do* (Xylia dolabriformis), etc. There are two small teak 'reserves,' both on the western slopes of the Pegu Yomas, the Maguyí, and the Kyet-pyúgan. The area of reserved forests in Rangoon District in 1884 was 554,540 acres, or 867 square miles; revenue, £10,464; expenditure, £16,752.

History.—Local legends, said to be confirmed by Tamil and Telugu traditions, state that in some unknown century before Christ, the inhabitants of Telingána or Northern Madras colonized the coast of Burma, finding there a Mún population, by which designation the Peguans still call themselves, whilst Telingána appears in the modern word Talaing. The Palm-leaf Records assert that the Shwe-Dagon pagoda was founded by two brothers, who had met and conversed with Gautama Buddha in India. But the first notice of the country that can be considered as historical is given in the Singhalese *Mahawanso*, which mentions the mission of Sono and Uttaro, sent by the third Buddhist Council (244 B.C.) to Suvarna-bhúmí ('Aurea Regio') to spread the Buddhist faith. It seems clear that the delta of the Irawadi did not escape from the contest between the followers of the Bráhmanical and Buddhist faiths, which lasted for hundreds of years, until about the end of the 8th century the victory eventually passed to the one body in India, and to the other in Burma.

One of the results of these religious differences was the foundation of the city of Pegu in 573 A.D. by Tha-ma-la and Wí-ma-la, two sons of the King of Tha-htún by a mother of Nága descent, who were excluded from the throne of their father. Tha-ma-la was anointed King, and would seem to have extended his dominions considerably to the eastward, as he is said to have built Martaban. He was succeeded by his brother Wí-ma-la, who founded Sittang, and during whose reign the country was unsuccessfully invaded (in 590 A.D.) by the King of Bij-ja-na-ga-ran. Thirteen kings are said to follow between this period and 746 A.D.; and by the latter time the kingdom included the whole country of Rama-gnya, from the Arakan Mountains on the west to the Salwín river on the east, including the former capital, Tha-htún, which had much declined in importance. Even at this time, Buddhism was

not generally accepted in the country; and the tenth king of Pegu, Pún-na-rí-ka (Bráhman heart), and more especially his son and successor, Tek-tha, appear to have at least inclined towards Hindu traditions. With the death of Tek-tha ended the third dynasty of Pegu, for the succession had been more than once disturbed by usurpers. The length of time during which these three dynasties occupied the throne is doubtful, and it is by no means clear when Tek-tha died.

A gap now occurs, owing to the unwillingness of Talaing historians to disclose the religious revolutions in their country during the 9th and 10th centuries, and its conquest by A-naw-ra-hta, King of Pagan in 1050. After this date, it remained subject to the Burmese for two centuries. The gradual disintegration of the Burmese kingdom, the capture of its capital by the Chinese army of the Mongol Emperor, Kublai Khán (1283–84 A.D.), and the flight of the king to Bassein, were taken advantage of by the Talaings, who rose in rebellion. A man named Wa-rí-yú killed the Burmese Governor of Martaban, and made himself master of that town and the surrounding country. A-kham-won, who had headed a rising in Pegu, now leagued himself with Wa-rí-yú, and their united army defeated the forces of the King of Burma, and pursued them as far as Pa-daung, a few miles below Prome. The Talaings then retired to Pegu; but disputes ensued, which ended in the death of A-kham-won or Ta-ra-bya, and in his rival being declared ruler of the entire country. Shortly after this, Wa-rí-yú was killed by two sons of A-kham-won, and was succeeded in 1306 by his brother, who only reigned four years.

From 1385 to 1421, Raza-dí-rit was on the throne. He repelled a formidable invasion of the Burmese, and in 1388 regained possession of Martaban and the country to the eastward, which had been lost in a previous reign. The history of Rangoon District during this period is nothing but a series of internecine struggles and wars with the Burmese. It was probably during the reign of Raza-dí-rit that the country was first visited by Europeans. Nicholas Conti was in Pegu, 'a very populous city, the circumference of which is 12 miles,' in 1430. Antonio Correa made a treaty at Martaban in 1519 with Bya-gnya-ran, the tenth monarch after Raza-dí-rit; and from this time onwards, there was considerable intercourse between European soldiers of fortune and the kings of Pegu, who sought their aid. For the local history of Rangoon town, see the next article.

In the 16th century (*circa* 1538), Pegu was conquered by Ta-bin-shwe-htí, King of Taung-gú, and thus ended the dynasty founded by Wa-rí-yú. Ta-bin-shwe-htí took Martaban, and, returning to Pegu, was crowned king; and to mark his assumption of that rank, placed new 'umbrellas' on the Shwe-hmaw-daw and Shwe-Dagon pagodas. Later on, he gained possession of the country as far as Lower Pagan; in 1549

he defeated the Siamese army, and forced the King of Siam to pay tribute. But in 1550, Ta-bin-shwe-htí was assassinated by the Governor of Tsit-taung, who proclaimed himself king. After some disturbance, Bhúrin Naung, the heir-apparent, obtained his rights. He took Taung-gú, and in 1554 declared war against Burma, and in March 1555 captured Ava. His dominions extended from Tenasserim to Arakan, and from the sea-coast northwards to the Shan States. Bhúrin Naung died suddenly in 1581. He was more than a great warrior; he enlarged his capital and strengthened its walls, and he founded in the neighbourhood another town of which the massive remains still exist. He was observant of religious rites, and obtained from one of the kings of Ceylon a relic of Gautama, which he enshrined in a pagoda. Bhúrin Naung also abolished the annual sacrifices to the *Nat* or spirits. Bhúrin Naung was succeeded by his son Nanda Bhúrin, to whom all neighbouring rulers did homage, with the exception of the Burmese monarch, against whom Nanda Bhúrin advanced up the Irawadi in 1584-85, and forced him to escape into China. Meanwhile the King of Siam revolted; and four expeditions, all equally unsuccessful, were despatched against him in 1585, 1587, 1590, and 1593. These failures seem to have embittered Nanda Bhúrin, and to have rendered him wantonly cruel. The Talaing Buddhist monks especially incurred his enmity, and numbers were put to death or forced to fly the country. The delta became depopulated, and utter anarchy ensued. The Arakanese seized Syriam; in 1599 Pegu was taken, and Nanda Bhúrin sent captive to Taung-gú. The kingdom was for a while left without a ruler.

In 1600, Philip de Brito, then in the service of the Arakanese sovereign, was commanded to hold Syriam. He, however, proved faithless, and sided with the Portuguese viceroy at Goa. Being accepted by the Talaing inhabitants, he declared himself master of Pegu, of which he took possession in the name of the King of Portugal. He erected a fort and church at Syriam, and laid out a new city. The forces of the kings of Taung-gú and Arakan were routed, and the commander made prisoner. Philip de Brito now entered into treaties with his former enemy, the King of Taung-gú, and also with the ruler of Martaban; but having treacherously attacked the former, was himself captured by the King of Burma in 1612, and impaled. The Portuguese power in Pegu was thus finally destroyed.

Pegu remained subject to Burma till 1740; and it was during this period that the English commenced trading with Rangoon. In 1695, application was made for permission to establish a factory at Syriam; and from 1709 to 1743, English traders were settled there. But the Burmese Government, owing partly to invasions from the north, and partly to internal dissensions, was falling to pieces; and in 1740 the Peguans rose in open rebellion. Syriam was twice seized, and in

1743, in consequence of English aid being refused, our factories were burnt down. Ava was in the hands of the Peguans for a short time; but in 1753, Maung-aung-zaya, *Myo-thú-gyí* of Mút-tsho-bo, regained the capital, and proclaimed himself king under the title of Alaung-paya (or Alompra), thus founding the dynasty that reigned till 1885. Within four years he had conquered Pegu, Tavoy, and Mergui, and had advanced into Siam. The British sided with neither party; but, unfortunately, some of our officers were suspected by Alaung-paya of having favoured the Peguans. In 1824 the first Anglo-Burmese war broke out, and a British force entered the river, and took Rangoon. At the close of the campaign, the British restored Pegu to the King of Burma. Disputes on matters of trade led to the second Anglo-Burmese war of 1852, at the close of which the District of Rangoon, with the rest of the Pegu and Irawadi Divisions and part of the present Tenasserim Division, was annexed.

Population.—The continual wars between the Burmese, the Peguans, and the Siamese, together with internal dissensions, almost depopulated the once flourishing Talaing kingdom, of which this District formed part. Nanda Bhúrin, who reigned over Pegu and Ava from 1581 to 1599, by his cruelties forced numbers to abandon the country, and the delta became utterly deserted. The Burmese, after the conquest in 1757, set themselves steadily to extirpate the Talaing language; and after the first Anglo-Burmese war, they drove thousands into the British Provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim. In 1855, including Rangoon city, the total number of inhabitants was returned at 137,130. The Census of 1881 disclosed, exclusive of Rangoon city, a population of 427,720, namely, 239,018 males and 188,702 females, occupying 72,115 houses, in 1 town and 1393 villages, on an area of 4236 square miles. Number of persons per square mile, 101; villages per square mile, 0·33; houses per square mile, 17·8; persons per house, 5·9. Nearly 56 per cent. of the population are males; owing mainly to the existence of a large foreign element, in which the males largely preponderate. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years of age, boys 89,137, girls 83,115; total children, 172,252, or 40·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 149,881, and females 105,587; total adults, 255,468, or 59·8 per cent. of the population.

Classified according to religion—Buddhists number 408,016; Nat-worshippers, 470; Hindus, 7908; Muhammadans, 4085; Christians, 7227; Brahmos, 11; and Pársís, 3. Classified according to race as shown by the language table—Burmese, 324,817; Talaing, 25,986; Karen, 50,702; Shan, 11,282; Chinese, 2013; Hindustání, 8193; Telugu, 1836; Tamil, 797; Taungthu, 1090. The Muhammadan population according to sect consists of—Sunnís, 3244; Shiás, 634;

Faráizís, 36; and 'others,' 171. Of the Christian population—Europeans number 163; Eurasians, 137; and Natives, 6927, of whom 6246 are Baptists. The number of Talaings seems small, but it is probable that many shown in the returns as Burmese are really pure Talaings, and still more of mixed Burmese and Talaing blood. The Karens belong to the Pwo and Sgaw families, and are industrious agriculturists. Many have been converted to Christianity, and the remainder profess Buddhism. The Shans are immigrants from the north, and are settled in colonies. In the Than-lyin township are several villages occupied by the descendants of captives brought from Zin-mai by Alaung-paya after his invasion of that country, about 125 years ago.

The Census of 1881 distributed the population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, 4371 males and 313 females; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1225 males and 2522 females; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 14,469 males and 3663 females; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 88,504 males and 44,894 females; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 17,605 males and 17,996 females; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 112,844 males and 119,314 females.

The chief towns (exclusive of Rangoon city, which forms a District by itself) are—PEGU, situated on the Pegu river, once the capital of a flourishing kingdom, but now merely a large village with 5891 inhabitants; TWAN-TE, also formerly important, but now an insignificant village; Pyawbhway, with 2043 inhabitants; and Tanma-naing, the head-quarters of Pyawbhway township, with 1603 inhabitants. Of the 1394 towns and villages in the District, 601 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 594 from two to five hundred; 149 from five hundred to one thousand; 45 from one to two thousand; 4 from two to three thousand; and 1 above five thousand inhabitants.

Antiquities.—The principal pagodas in the District are—the Shwe-Dagon and the Shwe-hmaw-daw at Twan-te. The SHWE-DAGON is the most celebrated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries, as enshrining several hairs of Gautama Buddha. The SHWE-HMAW-DAW is the great pagoda of the Talaings. Not far from Twan-te stand a few ancient pagodas, indicating the site of Khappanganagara and Minsladon Hmaw-bi. Hlaing and Tánbú are sites of more modern, but still ancient towns.

Agriculture.—The District is said to have once been highly cultivated; but the continual wars with the Siamese on the one hand, and with the Burmese on the other, the cruel persecutions by Nanda Bhúrin at the end of the 16th century, and the measures adopted by the Burmese conquerors, depopulated the land. The British annexation gave a new

stimulus, and the area under rice (the exportation of which had been prohibited in the Burmese time) commenced at once to increase. The richest rice tract is that lying between the To, the Hlaing, the Panhlaing, and the sea, which now forms the Twan-te and Pyawbhway townships. The out-turn varies from 40 baskets (about 12 cwt.) to 30 baskets (9 cwt.) per acre. Towards the north the soil becomes much poorer. The country to the south and south-east is annually covered with so much water that cultivation can only be carried on in patches. Considerable damage was caused in former times by the leasing out of tidal streams as fisheries, the lessees having erected weirs and embankments which caused the channels to silt up, and thus become unable to carry off the rainfall. This leasing is now prohibited.

In 1876-77, the total area under rice was 669,313 acres; and in 1882-83, 984,814 acres, out of a total area under cultivation of 1,013,019 acres. By the constitution of Pegu as a separate District in 1883-84, the area under rice in Rangoon has been reduced to 383,308 acres. Mixed fruit-trees, as mangoes, jacks, plantains, and *mayan* (a kind of acid plum), occupied a total area of 25,375 acres in 1882-83. At Twan-te is a small grove of Sapodilla plum-trees, producing the royal fruit of the Talaings. In 1868, a pair of buffaloes or plough bullocks cost £10; by 1883-84 the price had doubled. The average holding of an agriculturist is larger in Rangoon than anywhere else in the Province; in 1852 it was found to be about 10 acres; in 1881 it was, in the case of rice land, nearly 24 acres. Every owner of upwards of 8 acres hires labourers, who are paid by the season, and live with the farmer. The engagement includes ploughing, sowing, reaping, thrashing, and garnering; but in some parts natives of India are engaged in gangs at the harvest season. The average number of a cultivating family is 5·68, and their average yearly cost of living is about £18, 10s.; the average cost of cultivation per acre is £1, 0s. 9d., or £24, 18s. for an average-sized holding. This, with the cost of living, brings the annual expenditure up to £43, 8s. The out-turn would be about 850 baskets, selling at £7 per 100 baskets, or £59, 10s., giving a net gain of about £17.

The District contained in 1883-84 the following agricultural stock and implements:—Cows and bullocks, 28,066; horses and ponies, 112; sheep and goats, 549; pigs, 7708; elephants, 8; buffaloes, 33,998; carts, 8230; ploughs, 15,794; boats, 4757. The average rent per acre of land fitted for rice is 6s. 10d., and the average produce per acre, 864 lbs. The prices ruling in the District in 1883-84 per *maund* of 80 lbs., were—for rice, 13s. 9d.; for cotton, 26s.; for sugar, 33s.; for salt, 5s. 9d.; for tobacco, 33s.; for oil-seeds, 56s.; for cocoa-nut oil, 44s.; for earth oil, 13s. Skilled labourers in 1883-84 earned 2s., and unskilled labourers, 1s. 1½d. a day.

Natural Calamities.—West of the Hlaing river the country is liable

to inundation. The embankments along the west bank of the Irawadi, which protect large areas of good land in other Districts to the westward, cause the floods—which formerly spread west and east—to flow eastward to a far greater extent than before, thus not only increasing the flooded area, but also making the floods higher than formerly. The flood water enters by the numerous creeks connecting the Irawadi with the Hlaing, and, passing down the Pan-hlaing, forces back the Hlaing, causing much mischief. In 1876–77, the crops were ruined over no less than 171,000 acres, entailing much suffering on the people, serious remissions of land revenue, and an extensive emigration. Again, in 1877–78, 65,339 acres of rice land were irretrievably damaged by inundation.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles manufactured in Rangoon District are salt, pottery, *nga-pí* or fish-paste, mats, and silk and cotton cloth. The pottery and fish-paste alone are exported. Salt is made during the hot weather at various places along the sea-coast, and in the Syriam and An-gyí townships, partly by solar evaporation and partly by boiling in iron or earthen pots. The boiling season lasts for about two months, and the average out-turn from each pot may be taken at 250 *viss*, or about 8 cwts., which would sell for £1, 16s. or £1, 18s. The quantity manufactured is decreasing year by year, owing to the cheapness of the imported English salt. Pots for salt-boiling are made at Kwon-chan-gun, and in the adjoining village of Taw-pa-lway in the Pyawbhway township. The price per hundred varies from £4, 10s. to £9. A party of four good workmen will turn out from 100 to 125 pots per diem. The cost of a hundred baskets of sand is 16s.; of earth, 5s. The mixer gets 2s. a day; the wheel-turner, fashioner, and finisher, each get 6s. per hundred pots. The expenditure during a season for manufacturing 1250 pots is estimated at £50, and the net profit at £25. Ordinary cooking pots cost from 12s. to 16s. per 100 in the cold season, and 10s. in the rains. At Twan-te are made large water or oil vessels, glazed outside with a mixture of galena and rice-water, and commonly known as 'Pegu jars.' *Nga-pí* and coarse mats, used for ships' holds, are made chiefly in Pyawbhway. Silkworms are reared in the Hlaing township, and silk and cotton cloth are woven in almost every house. The trade of the District centres in RANGOON CITY.

Communication is carried on mainly by the numerous tidal creeks of the District. The total length of water-way is 492 miles. A new canal has recently been cut from the Rangoon river opposite Rangoon city to To, near Twan-te. There are 112 miles of made road in the District, the principal being that from Rangoon city towards Prome, now taken up by the Irawadi Valley State Railway; and the Rangoon and Taung-gú road from Tauk-kyan to Pegu, crossing the Pegu river by a

wooden bridge, and proceeding northwards along the eastern foot of the Pegu Yomas. The Rangoon and Irawadi Valley State Railway runs nearly due north for 60½ miles to the Mí-nin river, with stations at Kemendine, Pauk-taw, Hlaw-ga, Hmaw-bí, Wanetchaung, Taik-gyí, Palon, and Okkan. The line is single, with a gauge of 3·28 feet. The Sittang line strikes north-east *viâ* Pegu to Taung-gú.

Revenue.—No records exist showing the exact revenue raised in the District before British annexation. The amounts were fixed in *viss* (3·65 lbs.) of Gwek-ní silver, each of which is equivalent to about £13. The total sum paid by the people in what is now Hanthawadi, Pegu, and a part of Thonegwa Districts, has been estimated at about £114,560. In 1853–54 the net revenue was £54,509; in 1855–56, £96,040. The gross revenue in 1877–78, excluding sea customs, but including the imperial revenue of Rangoon city and the income derived from local funds (exclusive of Rangoon city), was £323,251. The gross revenue in 1883–84 (excluding the city of Rangoon) was £115,316; and the land revenue, £88,519. The land capitation tax, fisheries, and sea customs yield the largest portion of the revenue. The fisheries are leased out for a term of five years by auction, and only *bona fide* fishermen living near can bid.

Administration. — Under Burmese rule, Rangoon and Pegu Districts consisted of several townships, each under an officer; and the whole was controlled by a governor with the power of life and death, who was in direct communication with the Government at Ava. When the British took possession, the local jurisdictions were to a great extent retained. And a *myo-ok* was appointed to each township with limited judicial, fiscal, and police powers; with *thúgyis* in charge of circles, and *gomys* under them in charge of villages.

Since then little alteration has been made in the general principles of administration, with four exceptions—(1) the formation in 1861–62 of a regular police; (2) a few years later, of an independent prison department; (3) later still, of an educational department; (4) the gradual division of the District, as revenue, population, and administrative labour increased, culminating in the complete separation of Rangoon city, and the formation in 1883 of three out of the seven townships into a new District called Pegu. All statistics, however, population and otherwise, given in this article, refer to the District before the separation of Pegu. Rangoon District now comprises 2 Sub-divisions, each containing 2 townships. The number of revenue circles is 29. There were 6 courts in the District in 1882–83, presided over by 26 officers exercising civil, criminal, and revenue powers. The Deputy Commissioner, as magistrate, can try all offences not punishable with death, and he hears all civil appeals. The average distance of a village from the nearest court is 26 miles. Gang-robberies,

which were very frequent for several years after the annexation, are now of rare occurrence. The police force in 1881–82 consisted of 2 superior officers and 53 subordinate officers and 512 men; total, 567: total cost in that year, £14,268, of which £14,094 was paid from imperial and £174 from local funds. The total cost in 1877 was £12,304. The Central and District prison is situated in Rangoon city.

Schools were opened many years ago by both Roman Catholic and Baptist missionaries; but for long they were confined to the city, the education of the rural classes being left entirely in the hands of the Buddhist monks. In 1867 there were 54 village mission schools aided by Government, chiefly for Karens. In 1873 a cess school was established in Pegu. In 1883–84 there were 358 monastic and lay indigenous primary vernacular schools, with 10,134 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 28,091 boys and 5225 girls as under instruction, besides 97,063 males and 2946 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Climate.—The climate is generally depressing, though December and January are cool bracing months, with little rain. The rains last from about the beginning of May till the middle of November, and are usually accompanied by considerable electrical disturbance. The average annual rainfall at Rangoon, which may be taken as the same as that of the whole District, is 98·71 inches; the rainfall at Rangoon in 1883 was 82·3 inches. In the same year the temperature ranged between 99·30° F. as the maximum and 59·50° as the minimum. Fever, rheumatism, and pulmonary complaints are prevalent. The dispensary and hospital are situated in Rangoon city.

Rangoon.—The capital of the Province of Lower Burma, is situated in lat. 16° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 96° 13′ 15″ E., on the left bank of the Hlaing river, at its junction with the Pegu and Pú-zun-daung streams, 21 miles from the sea, with a small suburb, the Da-la quarter, on the opposite bank. Area, 22 square miles. Population (1881) 134,176.

According to Talaing tradition, the first village on the site of the modern Rangoon was founded about 585 B.C. by two brothers, Pú and Ta-paw, who had received some of Gautama's hairs from the Buddha himself, and, acting on his instructions, enshrined them in the famous SHWE-DAGON pagoda. Pún-na-rí-ka, who reigned in Pegu from 746 to 761 A.D., is said to have re-founded the town, and called it Aramana. Afterwards it regained its name of Dagon. The Talaing records relate how it was occupied by the Burmese in 1413; how Bya-nya-kin, the son of Raza-dí-rit, was appointed its governor; and how Shin-tsaw-bú, his sister, in whose memory a national festival is celebrated every year, built herself a palace here in 1460. The town gradually sank into a collection of huts. Da-la, now an unimportant suburb on the right

bank of the Hlaing, and Syriam, on the opposite side of the Pegu river, are repeatedly noticed; but of Dagon little or nothing is said.

Gaspar Balbi, who came to Pegu in 1579–80, thus wrote of Dagon: 'After we were landed, we began to goe on the right hand in a large street about 50 paces broad, in which we saw wooden houses gilded and adorned with delicate gardens after their custom, wherein their Talapoins, which are their Friers, dwell and look to the Pagod or Varella of Dogon. The left side is furnished with portals and shops, . . . and by this street they go the Varella for a good mile straight forward, either under paint houses or in the open street, which is free to walk in.' The English, Portuguese, Dutch, and French had factories at Than-lyin, better known as Syriam, on the other side of the river. The officers in charge communicated with the Talaing court at Pegu though the governor of Dagon, who, in order to be able to suppress the quarrels between the European factors, each of whom strove to oust the rest for the benefit of his own nation, was eventually promoted, by the sovereign of Pegu, to the first rank in the kingdom.

In the wars between the sovereigns of Burma and Pegu, Dagon frequently changed hands; and when, in 1763, Alaung-paya, or Alompra, drove out the Talaing garrison of Ava (then the Burmese capital), and eventually conquered the Talaing dominions, he came down to Dagon, and repaired the great pagoda. Alaung-paya for the most part rebuilt the town, gave it the name of Ran-kún (lit. 'the end of the war') or Rangoon, which it has ever since borne, and made it the seat of a viceroyalty. Rangoon, however, remained little more than a group of hovels, just above the level of low tide. Until 1790 it was the scene of incessant struggles between the Burmese and Peguans. In that year the place was captured by the latter, but the rising was speedily quelled by Min-tara-gyi or Bo-daw Paya, the Burmese monarch. The more general aspects of the native history of Rangoon have been dealt with under RANGOON District.

About this period the English obtained leave to establish a factory in Rangoon, and the British colours were hoisted over it. In 1794, differences arose in Arakan and Chittagong between the East India Company and the Burmese Government, and Colonel Symes was sent on an embassy to Ava, one of the results of his mission being the appointment of a British Resident at Rangoon in 1798. Symes thus described Rangoon as he saw it: 'It stretches along the bank of the river about a mile, and is not more than a third of a mile in breadth. The city or *myo* is a square, surrounded by a high stockade, and on the north side it is further strengthened by an indifferent fosse, across which a wooden bridge is thrown; in this face there are two gates, in each of the others only one. On the south side, towards the river, . . . there are a number of huts and three wharves, with cranes for landing goods.

A battery of 12 cannon, six and nine pounders, raised on the bank, commands the river, but the guns and carriages are in such a wretched condition that they could do but little execution. . . . The streets of the town are narrow, and much inferior to those of Pegu, but clean and well paved; there are numerous channels to carry off the rain, over which strong planks are placed to prevent an interruption to intercourse. The houses are raised on posts from the ground. . . . All the officers of Government, the most opulent merchants, and persons of consideration, live within the fort; shipwrights and people of inferior rank inhabit the suburbs. . . . Swine are suffered to roam about the town at large; . . . they are servants of the public, common scavengers. . . . The Burmese are also fond of dogs, numbers of which infest the streets.'

During the first Anglo-Burmese war (1825), Rangoon was taken by the British and held till 1827; it was evacuated in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Yandabu. In 1840, the appearance of Rangoon was described as suggestive of meanness and poverty, quite dispelling the interest excited by the narratives of travellers. In 1841, King Kún-baung-min, better known as Prince Tharawadi, ordered the town and stockade to be removed about a mile and a quarter inland to the site of Ok-ka-la-ba, and to be called by that name. The royal order was to a certain extent obeyed; the principal buildings and Government offices were placed in the new town, and were there when the British force landed at and captured Rangoon in April 1852, on the outbreak of the second Anglo-Burmese war. From this time the place has remained in possession of the English. Within six months, steps were taken for laying out regular streets, for raising the general level, and for keeping out the river.

The work of improvement has gone on steadily, and the Rangoon of to-day has practically been created since 1852. A raised strand road runs along the southern reach of the Hlaing, and the space between it and the old ditch is divided into square blocks by broad and regular streets. To the north is the military cantonment, and within its limits stands the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda, the terraced hill from which it rises being now fortified. A little to the east of this edifice is the 'Great Royal Lake,' a fine sheet of water, with a carriage-road all round. The Rangoon and Irawadi State Railway has a station in the centre of the city, which is divided into 11 quarters. On the right bank of the Hlaing is the Da-la quarter or suburb, a narrow tract extending along the margin of the river, in which are situated the private dockyards and docks. The main portion, or Rangoon Proper, contains the public buildings, the principal of which are the law courts, telegraph and post offices, Bank of Bengal, Roman Catholic

and Anglican churches, custom-house, etc. The Tsu-lai pagoda is in Fytche square, an open space with a large tank in the centre surrounded by trees and shrubs. The point of junction of the Pú-zún-daung and Hlaing rivers in the east, known as Monkey Point, is crowned by a battery; along the bank of the former stream are the chief rice-husking steam mills, and on the Hlaing are numerous sawmills. The other buildings of note in Rangoon are—the lunatic asylum; the jail, which is the main central prison for the Province, and contained in 1883, 8005 prisoners, of whom 128 were females, and 270 Europeans; the hospital and charitable dispensary, east of the Agri-Horticultural Society's Gardens, with the Phayre Museum; the high school; St. John's College; the Diocesan school, etc.

Immediately north of the railway, which runs behind the high school, jail, and lunatic asylum, is the military parade-ground, with an iron Anglican church on its northern border. The military cantonment extends behind this in a line running east and west; the east overlaps it and reaches down southwards for some distance. In 1885 the garrison consisted of one battery of artillery, one battalion of European and one of Native infantry, with a detail of Sappers, all belonging to the Madras army. The judicial work of the town is entrusted to a Recorder and subordinate magistrates. In certain cases, such as confirming sentences of death, the Recorder and the Judicial Commissioner of the Province, who otherwise has no jurisdiction in Rangoon, sit together as the 'special court.' The police in 1883 numbered 605 officers and men.

A municipal committee for Rangoon was first appointed on 31st July 1874; the elective system and an extension of municipal self-government were introduced in 1882–83. The municipal committee have erected fine markets, supplied the town with good water from the 'Royal Lakes,' and lighted the streets with kerosene lamps. They have also carried out a scheme for an improved water-supply from an artificial reservoir near Kokaing. Since November 1883, water has been abundantly supplied to the town. The municipality has recently granted a concession for the laying down of street tramways. Municipal income (1883–84), £160,802. The strand bank, with its wharves and moorings, is under the management of a special body.

In 1795 the population of Rangoon was estimated at 25,000; in 1812, at 8250. In 1852 the number of inhabitants was returned at about the same as in 1795. Long previous to 1795, Rangoon was the asylum of insolvent debtors and of foreigners of desperate fortunes, and apart from these, was inhabited by persons of almost every nationality. The Census of 1872 returned the population at 89,897, inclusive of the shipping and travellers. Burmese numbered 56,918; Hindus,

15,261; Talaings, 7451; Europeans and Eurasians (including Americans and Australians), 4016; Chinese, 3181; Shans, 1217; Karens, 525; and 'others,' 1328, including Muhammadans of different nationalities, Armenians, Arakanese, Kathays, Malays, Jews, Pársís, and Siamese. In 1878 the population was estimated to have increased to 110,700, dwelling in 13,389 houses.

In 1881 the Census returned the total population at 134,176, namely, 91,504 males and 42,672 females, dwelling in 20,655 houses. Hindus number 35,871; Muhammadans, 21,169; Christians, 9741; Buddhists, 67,131; Nat-worshippers, 34; Jews, 172; and Pársís, 58. Natives of Burma number 63,136; natives of India (Arabs, Bengalis, Hindustánís, Uriyas, Punjabís, Persians, Suratis, Tamils, and Telugus, etc.), 57,153; Talaings, 1812; Europeans and Eurasians (including Americans and Australians), 5659; Chinese, 3752; Shans, 1556; Karens, 167; and 'others,' 941. The population is divided into three parts—the municipality, 115,136; the cantonment, 9652; and the port, 9388. The density of the population within municipal limits, excluding the space covered by water and the port population, is 8857 persons per square mile. In the cantonment the density is 4826 persons per square mile. The population of the port was enumerated on board 77 steamers and sea-going vessels, as well as in small boats.

Trade.—When Arakan and Tenasserim were ceded to the English after the first war, the commerce of Pegu found an outlet at Maulmain, and rapidly raised that town to a large commercial port. But when Pegu was annexed in 1853, trade began to advance with gigantic strides. Not only was the whole customs system changed, and numerous restrictions removed, but the country in the interior was gradually developed. Rangoon now ranks as the third port in India. In early days, the largest business was done with Calcutta, owing to the great demand in that market for teak, and the facility with which the Burmese were thence supplied with British and Indian piece-goods. No direct trade existed between Burma or Pegu and any European country.

The nature of the land on the banks of the river, the accessibility of the town from the sea, the great rise and fall of the tide, the low rates of wages, and, as it seemed, the inexhaustible supply of teak timber, gave Rangoon great advantages for shipbuilding. The European principles of construction appear to have come from the French. No information regarding vessels constructed before 1786 is available, but in that year two vessels, one of 680 tons, were launched. And from 1790 to 1821, 106 vessels were launched, the tonnage ranging from 50 to 1050. For some time before the commencement of hostilities this industry was checked, and when war actually broke out it ceased entirely, but was resumed soon after the signing of the treaty of Yandabu (1826), until war was again declared in 1852. During this

interval 24 vessels, with a total tonnage of 5625, were built. Only one small vessel was built in 1883–84.

The total number of vessels that cleared annually from Rangoon to all ports for many years prior to 1811 was from 18 to 25; from 1811 to 1817, 36; from 1817 to 1822, 46; and from 1822 to 1825, 56. In 1822, it was calculated that the maximum tonnage likely to find employment between Calcutta and Rangoon was 5400. In the three years 1820–21 to 1822–23, 22 vessels, aggregating 9404 tons, entered the port of Calcutta from Rangoon, and 5 vessels, aggregating 630 tons, the port of Madras. Under Burmese rule, the port charges were always high; and up to 1813 the dues and presents for the principal officials claimed from all masters, without distinction, amounted to £126. The cost of clearing was about £175. In 1813, certain changes were effected; in 1820, the demands for a ship of 420 tons amounted to £196. A new ship built in the river was exempt from charges on her first voyage. Commanders on landing had to go first to the custom-house to be searched, then to the port officer, after this to the place for delivery of the manifest of all cargo, fire-arms, ammunition, etc., then to the governor, and lastly to the Ye-won.

Up to a few years before 1824–25, all square-rigged vessels were obliged to unship their rudders and land their guns, etc.; ultimately, they were relieved from this humiliation on paying a sum of £4 to the local authorities. At this period, the duty charged on all imports was 12 per cent.; on all exports (except timber), 5 per cent.; and on timber, 1 per cent. Ships' stores paid half-duty. The exportation of rice and precious metals was strictly prohibited, and it was only by adroit smuggling that the latter were carried away. In 1805, exclusive of treasure, the imports were valued at £24,523; the exports, at £65,360. In 1821, the total value of the imports, also exclusive of treasure, into Rangoon was £9544; of the exports, £19,744. The chief imports from Calcutta were piece-goods, raw silk, cotton, indigo, saltpetre, sugar, rice, pepper, and opium.

From 1826 to 1852, the average annual number of arrivals and departures was—English vessels from 100 to 1000 tons, 20; Chulia vessels (or those owned and navigated by natives) from 200 to 600 tons, 25; coasting schooners bound westward, 60; Chinese junks and small boats, 20: total, 125. A royal present of one piece of cambric, one piece of Palampur, and a Pulicat handkerchief, was made by the master of each ship arriving. The port charges had been reduced, and varied, according to the tonnage of the ship, from £1 to £50. These went into the coffers of the local government, while the anchorage dues were assigned to one of the queens. The amount remitted annually to the capital on account of custom dues was about £21,000.

After British annexation, in 1858–59, the imports amounted to

£1,274,374, and the exports to £856,681; total, £2,131,055. By 1868–69, the value of imports had risen to £2,346,460, and of exports to £1,954,055; total, £4,300,515. In 1877–78 the imports rose still further to £3,777,724, and the exports to £4,414,301; total, £8,192,025. In 1883–84, the imports increased yet more to £7,065,465, and the exports to £6,108,630; total, £13,174,095, of which the foreign trade was valued at £7,830,158, namely, imports, £3,627,222, and exports, £4,202,936. The chief imports were cotton twist, yarn, and piece-goods, jute manufactures, provisions, silk goods, spices, tobacco, coals, machinery, metals, treasure, apparel, salt seeds, and woollen goods. The principal exports were rice, timber, raw cotton, hides and horns, gums and resins, mineral oil, stone (jade), lac, ivory, precious stones, and drugs. In 1877–78, the total value of customs duties levied on exports and imports was £291,773. Although the abolition at the close of 1881–82 of most of the import duties reduced the customs revenue on imports from £167,467 to £96,034, the large increase in the exports of rice almost made up the deficiency. The gross customs revenue amounted in 1882–83 to £652,057. In 1877–78, the gross tonnage of vessels entering the port was 559,051; of vessels clearing, 540,904: total, 1,099,955 tons. In 1883–84, 939 vessels of 711,513 tons entered the port, and 893 vessels of 696,349 tons cleared; total, 1832 vessels, of 1,407,862 tons, of which 1134 were steamers, of 994,438 tons.

The price of unhusked rice or paddy in the Rangoon market in 1819 was about R. 1, or 2s., for 10 baskets (bushels). In 1855–56 it was threefold, and that of husked rice twofold, what it had been before the annexation. Since 1855–56, the increase in the supply, great as it has been, has not kept pace with the demand, and prices have again doubled. The rice season commences about February and ends in May. The prices of rice in the husk at the mills in Rangoon in 1881 were, per 100 baskets—in January, Rs. 100, or £10; in April, Rs. 80, or £8; in July, Rs. 85, or £8, 10s.; and in October, Rs. 70, or £7. Each firm has one or more brokers and several buyers, the former as a rule residing on the mill premises. At the beginning of the season, the firm advances money to the buyer, and takes a mortgage on his boat, the broker also standing as security. The buyer then purchases rice in the country as cheaply as he can, and sells it to the millowner at current rates, receiving cash payment. Towards the end of the season, the advances are gradually called in by the 'short payment' system—that is, the buyer is paid for a portion only of his cargo, the rest being taken as against the advance.

Many of the cultivators, however, bring down the grain themselves and sell it to brokers in the Pegu and Rangoon rivers, and the

cargoes are delivered at the mills on the banks of the Pú-zun-daung. The brokers are paid by a percentage on every basket. The rice is measured at the wharves, and then taken to the mills, where it is winnowed, carried to the top stores, passed between two stones which revolve at a distance just sufficient to grind off the outer husk. It is then re-winnowed (a blast carrying away the loosened husk) and shot into bags—all by steam machinery. Perfectly cleaned rice will not stand the long voyage to England, and the grain as exported has still on it an inner pellicle, and is mixed with about 20 per cent. of un-husked rice, known technically as 'cargo rice.' Since the opening of the Suez Canal, however, the quantity of cleaned rice exported to England has increased considerably. As competition is keen, and as each firm has only a limited extent of the river bank on which to discharge, a practice has sprung up of taking delivery in cargo boats in the Pegu river. This has led to the employment of steam launches for towing purposes; and probably before long, small light-draught steamers will be used to go up the Pegu and other rivers, and meet the rice boats coming down.

Rangoon River.—The name usually given to the lower portion of the HLAING RIVER (*q.v.*), Pegu Division, Lower Burma.

Rangpur.—British District, occupying the central portion of the Rájsháhí Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 25° 2′ 50″ and 26° 18′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 47′ and 89° 55′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Jalpáigurí District and Kuch Behar State; on the east by the Brahmaputra river, separating it from Goálpárá and Maimansingh; on the south by Bogra; and on the west by Dinájpur and Jalpáigurí. Area, 3486 square miles. Population (according to the Census of 1881) 2,097,964. The administrative head-quarters are at RANGPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Rangpur District is one vast plain, without natural elevations of any kind. The rivers dominate over the topography of the country. Towards the east, the wide valley of the Brahmaputra is annually laid under water during the rainy season; and the remainder of the District is traversed by a network of streams, which frequently break through their sandy banks, and plough for themselves new channels over the fields. These river changes have left their traces in the numerous stagnant pools or marshes which dot the whole face of the country, but do not spread into wide expanses as in the lower delta. Under such circumstances, agricultural industry has taken full advantage of the natural fertility of the soil, which is composed of a sandy loam. Three-fourths of the total area are under continuous cultivation, the staple crops being rice, jute, oil-seeds, tobacco, potato, sugar-cane, and ginger; and even the patches of waste land yield a valuable tribute of reeds and cane.

The river system is constituted by the BRAHMAPUTRA and its tributaries. The Brahmaputra itself only skirts the eastern frontier; but its mighty stream exercises a great influence over the District, by the fertilizing effect of its inundations, and also by its diluviating action. The chief tributaries are the TISTA, DHARLA, SANKOS, KARATOYA, Gangádhár, and Dudhkumar, of which the Tísta is by far the most important. This river, indeed, owing to the extreme variations which have occurred in its course, has more than once modified the entire hydrography of Northern Bengal. At the time of Major Rennell's Survey in the third quarter of the last century, the Tísta flowed due south and finally fell into the Ganges, by what is now the channel of the ATRAI. But in 1787, a season of excessive rainfall caused the river to break away in a south-easterly direction, and discharge itself into the Brahmaputra. Old channels and offshoots of the Tísta abound throughout the District, the largest of which are known as the Karátoyá, Ghághát, Manás, and Gujáriá. These all afford valuable water communication during the rainy season. There are no embankments or artificial canals in the District, nor does the alluvial soil supply any mineral products.

Forests, Jungle Products, etc.—There are no important forests in Rangpur District yielding a revenue to Government. A private *sál* forest about six miles in circumference is situated a short distance south of Baripárá village, in the Phuranbárí police circle. Another forest, called the Pangá *jhár*, is situated close to the village of Pangá in the Barábárí police circle. It is 8 miles in circumference, and is composed of *chámá* and other trees; it contains also thick canes, which are sold for sticks. Canes and reeds abound throughout the District. The canes are of inferior quality, the principal being the *garál bet* (the best), the *jáli bet*, and the *harkati bet*. Reeds are of more importance; but with the exception of the *ulu* thatching reeds, few of the reeds or grasses pay any rent. All the tenants on an estate are usually allowed to cut whatever reeds they wish. In some parts, however, where the quantity is great, strangers come from a distance to cut the reeds, and usually pay a trifling sum for each sickle or person employed. In the cultivated parts of the District, many plants grow wild, or nearly so, of which the fruit, seeds, or roots are used as articles of food. The principal jungle products are honey, beeswax, and shell-lime.

Wild Animals.—Tigers and leopards are numerous, especially in the *chars* or sandy islands of the Brahmaputra, and appear to have increased in numbers during the present century. Wild buffaloes, wild hog, and deer of many varieties are common, and foxes and jackals are found in every part of the District. Of game birds, peacocks, pigeons, partridges, pheasants, quails, plovers, snipe, and wild ducks are found in abund-

ance. Fish swarm in all the rivers and streams, and fishing is carried on to a large extent by many of the poorer cultivators all over the District, as well as by professional fishermen. Porpoises (really dolphins) are numerous in the Brahmaputra, and are killed for the sake of the oil, by a class of fishermen known as Gonrárs.

History. — In the earliest days of which tradition preserves any record, Rangpur formed the western outpost of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. The capital was situated far away in the Assam valley; but the great Rájá Bhagadattá, whose defeat is recorded in the *Mahábhárata*, had a country residence at Rangpur, locally interpreted to mean 'the abode of pleasure.' Apart from these legends, which are the common property of Hinduism, genuine local traditions have preserved the names of three dynasties that ruled over this tract of country prior to the 15th century A.D. The earliest of these is associated with Prithu Rájá, the extensive ruins of whose capital are still pointed out in the present District of Jalpáigurí. Next came a dynasty of four kings, whose family name of Pál recurs in other parts of Bengal, and also in Assam. The founder, Dharmá Pál, has left the remains of a fortified city, which also lie within the limits of Jalpáigurí.

Rájá Bhavá Chandra, the third of this Pál dynasty, and his minister, are the heroes of the Hindu nursery version of the wise men of Gotham, and are renowned far and wide throughout Bengal. The Rájá and his minister were bereft of common sense by the curse of the Rájá's favourite goddess, whom he offended by visiting her temple at a forbidden time. They did nothing like other people—slept by day, and kept awake throughout the night. The minister took up his abode in a box, and only emerged from his retreat when called upon by the Rájá to deliberate with him on some hard matter. One or two of these judgments may be noted. The Rájá and his minister, in the plenitude of their wisdom, sentenced the potters to compensate the merchants for loss by wreck, on the ground that the high mounds raised by the former brought the clouds which had caused the storm. On another occasion, the people brought a fine wild hog to the Rájá and his minister, that they might decide what strange animal it was; and, after deep cogitation on the knotty point, they concluded that it must either be an overgrown rat or an elephant gone into a consumption. But their last judgment gives the climax to their fame. Two travellers were discovered one afternoon digging a cooking-place in the ground by the side of a tank, for the preparation of their evening meal. The Rájá, who discovered them, at once concluded that the men were engaged in effecting a burglarious entry in order to steal the tank, and he sentenced them to be impaled as robbers. The poor travellers, driven to desperation, made each of them seemingly frantic endeavours

to be impaled on the taller of the two poles; and when the Rájá inquired the reason of their extraordinary rivalry, they informed him that they had learned, by the power of their enchantments, that whoever was impaled on the taller pole would in the next birth become the sovereign of the whole world, while the other would be his minister. Bhavá Chandra, thinking that it would be far from consistent with justice that such low people should acquire supreme dignity, forthwith had himself impaled on the coveted pole, and his faithful minister followed his master, and expired on the shorter one. Bhavá Chandra's successor, Pála, was the last of the line.

The third dynasty had three kings, Niladwáj, Chakradwáj, and Nilambhar. The first of these founded Kamátápur, the ruins of which, situated in Kuch Behar territory, are 19 miles in circumference. All these successive capitals were built upon the same principle — enclosure within enclosure, the royal palace occupying the centre of the whole. Rájá Nilambhar is said to have been a very great monarch; but unfortunately he was brought into collision with the Afghán king of Gaur, who captured his capital by stratagem, and carried him away prisoner in an iron cage. This Afghán conqueror is identified with Husain Sháh, who reigned from 1499 to 1520.

But the Muhammadans did not retain their hold upon the country. A period of anarchy ensued; and among the wild tribes from the hills of Assam that overran Rangpur, the Koch came to the front and founded the dynasty which still exists at Kuch Behar. The first Rájá, Visu, was a conqueror who extended his arms eastwards up the Assam valley, and southwards over Rangpur. On his death, however, the kingdom was divided; and as soon as the Mughal Emperors had established their supremacy in Bengal, their viceroys began to push their north-eastern frontier across the Brahmaputra. By 1603 the Muhammadans were firmly established at Rángámátí in Goálpárá, which continued to form their outpost against the incursions of the Ahams. Rangpur proper was not annexed till 1687 by the generals of Aurangzeb. In the extreme north, the Kuch Behar Rájás were able to offer such a resolute resistance, that in 1711 they obtained a favourable compromise, in accordance with which they paid tribute as *zamíndárs* for the *parganás* of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág, but retained their independence in Kuch Behar proper.

This was the condition of things when the East India Company received possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765. At first, the British continued the Muhammadan practice of farming out the land revenue to contractors. But in 1783, the exactions of a notorious farmer, Rájá Debí Singh of Dinájpur, drove the Rangpur cultivators into open rebellion; and the Government was induced to invite the

zamíndárs to enter into direct engagements for the revenue. In 1772, the banditti, increased by disbanded troops from the native armies, and by peasants ruined in the famine of 1770, were plundering and burning villages 'in bodies of 50,000 men.' Rangpur was then a frontier District, bordering on Nepál, Bhután, Kuch Behar, and Assam. The enormous area of the jurisdiction, and the weakness of the administrative staff, prevented the Collector from preserving order in the remote corners of his District, which thus became the secure refuges of banditti. The early records of Rangpur and neighbouring parts of Bengal are full of complaints on this head, and of encounters between detachments of sepoys and armed bands of *dakáits* and *saniyásís*. A small British force sent against them received a check; in 1773, Captain Thomas, the leader of another party, was cut off, and four battalions had to be employed. In the year 1789, the Collector conducted a regular campaign against these disturbers of the peace. They had fled to the great forest of Baikunthpur, within which he blockaded them with a force of 200 *barkandázs*. At last they were compelled to surrender; and within a single year no less than 549 robbers were brought to trial.

In recent times, Rangpur has had no history beyond the mere recital of administrative changes. The entire tract east of the Brahmaputra has been formed into the independent District of Goálpárá, and annexed to the Province of Assam. The three northern *parganás* now constitute part of the new District of Jalpáigurí; and a considerable portion in the south has been transferred to Bográ, over the whole of which District the Judge of Rangpur continues to exercise civil jurisdiction. Of the area of the present District, about 300 square miles, which pay revenue into the Rangpur treasury, are under the criminal supervision of the Magistrate of Maimansingh.

Population.—In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in the course of his statistical inquiries, arrived at a most elaborate estimate for the population of Rangpur. Making allowance for the reduced area of the District, his calculations show 1,268,000 Muhammadans and 816,000 Hindus; total, 2,084,000 souls. These figures, both in the aggregate and in their classification, approximate marvellously to the results of the Censuses of 1872 and 1881; but it seems incredible that the population should have remained stationary during the long intervening period of prosperity. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 2,153,686, on an area corresponding to the present District. The last Census in 1881 returned the population of Rangpur District at 2,097,964; showing a decrease in population since 1872 of 55,722, or 2·58 per cent. in nine years. The decrease is ascribed to the ravages of malarial fevers, which, with their *sequelæ*, caused heavy mortality in the years immediately preceding the Census of 1881.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3486 square miles; towns 16, and villages 6721; number of houses, 342,298, namely, occupied 337,096, and unoccupied 5202. Total population, 2,097,964, namely, males 1,067,701, and females 1,030,263. Average density of population, 602 persons per square mile, varying from 436 per square mile in Pírganj police circle to 762 in Maiganj police circle, both within the head-quarters Sub-division. Towns and villages per square mile, 1·93; persons per town or village, 311; houses per square mile, 98·19; persons per occupied house, 6·22. Classified according to sex and age, the Census returns show—under 15 years of age, males 423,967, and females 389,191; total children, 813,158, or 38·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 643,734, and females 641,072; total adults, 1,284,806, or 61·3 per cent.

Religion.—The majority of the population are Muhammadans by religion, the faith of Islám being professed by 1,279,605 persons, or 60·1 per cent.; while the Hindus number 816,532, or 38·9 per cent. The remainder consists of Jains, 274; Christians, 86; Buddhists, 60; Brahmos, 8; and non-Hindu aborigines, 1399. There can be no doubt that in Rangpur, as in the rest of Eastern Bengal, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority became willing converts to the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. This latter fact is attested by local tradition. The only circumstance that might excite surprise, is that the Musalmáns should have exercised so great a proselytizing influence during the brief hundred years of their rule in Rangpur. The tribes now ranked as aboriginal are very poorly represented; the most numerous being the Telangá, a wandering race of gipsies. The total number of aboriginal tribes still professing their old faiths in Rangpur District is returned by the Census of 1881 at 1399. The semi-Hinduized aborigines of the Census Report, who are considerably more numerous than the Hindus proper, mainly consist of the cognate tribes of Koch, Palí, and Rájbansí, whose home is in the adjoining State of Kuch Behar, and who are known to be still more largely represented in the general Muhammadan population. These three tribes number collectively 432,498 among the Hindu population. The number of Muhammadan Kochs is unascertainable.

The higher castes of Hindus are but poorly represented. The Bráhmans number 12,075, mostly belonging to the two clans called Mithila and Kámrúpi Vaidik, whose settlement in Rangpur is known to have taken place in historic times, dating from the 13th or 14th century. These Bráhmans act as priests and spiritual instructors to many of the lower castes, and are looked down upon by the more orthodox Bárendra and Rárhi Bráhmans, who are chiefly found in the

south of the District, and who would lose their purity by administering to Súdras. The Rájputs of Rangpur number only 2325, and are employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and door-keepers. They claim to be Kshattriyas, the second or warrior caste in the ancient Hindu fourfold classification. The Káyasths, or writer caste, number 11,449, and include apparently many of the corresponding class known as Kolitas in Assam. The Baniyás, who claim to represent the Vaidya or trading caste of ancient India, number 3609.

Among the Súdras or low-caste Hindus, the following castes may be mentioned as the most numerous:—Tior, 92,790; Chandál, 36,795; Kaibarttá, 30,612; Madak, 25,180; Nápit, 13,041; Jaliyá, 8387; Goálá, 6331; Lohár, 5714; Harí, 5658; Kumbhár, 4966; Sunrí, 4939; Tántí, 4562; Jugí, 4561; Kurmí, 4297; Kahár, 3933; Chamár, 3660; Málí, 2905; and Telí, 2537. Caste-rejecting Hindus are returned at 27,245, of whom 26,974 are Vaishnavs.

The Muhammadans, according to sect, are divided into—Sunnís, 1,225,544; Shiás, 39,540; and unspecified, 14,521. The great bulk of the Muhammadans do not differ ethnically from the rest of the population, and are the descendants of converts made from the aboriginal tribes and low-caste Hindus by the early Muhammadan governors. Of recent years, the reforming Faráizí spirit has manifested itself among the higher classes of Muhammadans in the District. The Faráizís, or Shárás, as they are here called, adhere strictly to the law of Muhammad as laid down in the Kurán, and abstain from the ceremonies and processions of the Muharram, which they consider not to be enjoined by the sacred law. They do not, however, display any active intolerance.

The Jain population appears to be confined to the Kayás or Márwárís who come from North-Western India, and have settled in Rangpur District. Most of them are wealthy merchants carrying on a considerable trade in country produce and piece-goods, or as money-lenders. Since 1879, the Wesleyan Missionary Society have had a station in Rangpur town, with a total of 26 native Christian converts in 1881, out of 39 in the whole District. The Roman Catholics number 16; Baptists, 20; and Church of England and other Protestants without distinction of sect, 17; besides 33 of other denominations or unstated.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of Rangpur District is entirely rural. Although the Census Report returns 16 towns as containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants, with an aggregate population of 124,711, these are not towns in the ordinary acceptation of the term, but merely clusters of villages and hamlets (*mauzás*), grouped together for purposes of fiscal administration. Even the town of Rangpur itself includes within its municipal limits the lands of the three agricultural villages of Mahiganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj. The

sixteen so-called 'towns' are the following—RANGPUR, population 13,320; Barakhata, 11,393; Bhogdabárí, 10,892; Dimlah, 10,503; Gorgrám, 9616; Chhatnái, 9501; Bamoní, 6895; Kapási, 6556; Salmári, 6401; Khánbáritapa, 6151; Bágdogra, 5747; Nautaritapa, 5679; Barágarí, 5668; Magurá, 5642; Jhunagáchh Chapárí, 5454; and Bhátbachagari, 5293. Of the 6737 'towns' and villages in 1881, the Census returned 4280 as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1480 between two and five hundred; 554 between five hundred and a thousand; 274 between one and two thousand; 89 between two and three thousand; 44 between three and five thousand; 12 between five and ten thousand; and 4 between ten and fifteen thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government servants, civil and military, 12,829; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 22,922; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 29,491; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 538,168; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 43,758; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified or of no occupation, 420,533.

Material Condition of the People.—The great bulk of the population is composed of the lowest classes of Hindus and Muhammadans. They are described as indolent and superstitious, but their material condition has considerably improved of late years. The ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a *dhutí* or waist-cloth, a cotton sheet or shawl (*chádar*), and a pair of shoes. The clothing of an ordinary cultivator is nearly the same, except that he does not wear shoes, and the cotton is of a coarser quality. Bamboo matting, straw, and grass are the only materials used for house-building. A comfortable homestead usually consists of four apartments within a square enclosure, surrounded by a fence of woven bamboos or grass. A well-to-do cultivator would have two such enclosures for his dwelling, one being reserved for the female members of the family. The only furniture found in such a dwelling consists of common brass and pewter plates, cups, and pots for cooking and eating; a bamboo *machán* or platform, which serves as a bedstead; and a wooden chest. The ordinary food of the people, shopkeepers and agriculturists, is much the same, and consists chiefly of common rice, pulses, *káchu* (a species of yam), vegetables of different sorts, salt, oil, fish, and occasionally milk. Milk is more a luxury than an ordinary article of food. A late Collector some years ago estimated the living expenses for an average-sized household of a well-to-do shopkeeper at about 10 rupees, or £1, per month, and the expenses of a similar family of ordinary peasants at 8 rupees, or 16s., a month. This latter amount, however, represents the

cost which would be required if everything was purchased by the cultivator. As a matter of fact, the money cost is considerably less. His fields supply him with rice and vegetables, and most of the fish used for food is caught by himself or by some member of his family.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands and usually transplanted, affords from 70 to 85 per cent.; the remainder is furnished by the *áus* or autumn crop, which is generally grown on high lands. Elaborate agricultural statistics were collected in Rangpur, through the agency of a native Deputy Collector, in 1873. Out of a total area of 2,360,294 acres, he estimated that 1,737,950 acres, or 73 per cent., were actually under cultivation. Rice occupied 1,263,000 acres; fibres, 117,000; oil-seeds, 68,000; tobacco, 66,000; wheat, 31,000; inferior food-grains, 44,000; vegetables, 15,000; indigo and sugar-cane, 11,000 acres each. About one-eighth of the total area is capable of producing two crops in the year. The staples grown for export are rice, jute, tobacco, oil-seeds, potatoes, and ginger. Indigo cultivation is no longer conducted under European supervision, but native planters have taken over the deserted factories. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned *pán* or betel leaf, *supárí* or betel-nut, and mulberry for silkworms. Jute is grown in all parts of the District, but thrives best on the banks and islands of the larger rivers; the annual out-turn is more than 700,000 cwts. Tobacco is principally cultivated in the high-lying northern tracts; the leaf is bought up by Maghs from Chittagong and Arakan for the purpose of being manufactured in Burma.

Manure, in the form of cow-dung or oil-cake, is applied only to the more valuable crops. It is also a common practice to burn stubble or jungle on the fields in order to renovate the soil. Land is occasionally permitted to lie fallow; and it is known that certain crops cannot be raised in two successive years. Artificial irrigation is required only for tobacco fields for a few days when the plant has become fully developed. Spare land, capable of cultivation, can hardly be said to exist. The average produce of an acre of good rice lands renting at 9s., is 15 cwts., valued at £1, 4s. Land yielding two crops, and renting at 18s., may produce as much as 9 cwts. of *áus* rice, together with a second crop of pulses, oil-seeds, or tobacco, the whole valued at from £2, 10s. to £6. The Deputy Collector above referred to has estimated the total annual out-turn of all the crops in Rangpur District as worth £4,000,000 sterling. In ordinarily good years, about one-half of the rice crop is consumed by the local population, and the balance exported.

The rate of rent paid for rice land varies from 1s. 4d. to 11s. an acre; land suited for tobacco or sugar-cane pays from 11s. to 14s.; and *pán* gardens as much as £2 or £3 an acre. There is little that is peculiar

in the land tenures of the District, except the large degree to which the superior landlords have parted with their rights in favour of intermediate tenure-holders. Among such intermediate tenures may be mentioned the *upanchakí*, which was originally granted for charitable or religious purposes at a quit-rent, and the *mazkurí*. It is also noteworthy that the term *jotdár*, in this part of the country, is applied to a substantial middle-man, who holds for a term, but does not cultivate with his own hands. Very few of the actual cultivators have won for themselves rights of occupancy by a continuous holding of over twelve years; the majority are mere tenants-at-will.

From 27 to 33 acres is considered a very large holding for a single husbandman in Rangpur District. To cultivate a farm of this extent would require from eight to ten ploughs; and even though there were four or five adult male members of the family, an equal number of hired labourers would need to be employed. A cultivator's holding not exceeding $1\frac{1}{3}$ acre in extent is considered a very small one. A farm consisting of about 8 acres is a fair-sized, comfortable holding, and requires about three ploughs for its proper cultivation. It is estimated that about 30 per cent. of the peasantry of Rangpur cultivate only a single plough of land. The extent comprised in a 'plough' of land varies according to the nature and condition of the soil and of the crop, but on an average may be taken at from $3\frac{1}{3}$ to $3\frac{2}{3}$ acres. The poorer husbandmen with only a single plough generally cultivate mixed crops on their holdings, as being more remunerative than rice alone.

A husbandman with a farm 5 acres in extent, if he cultivated only rice, would be about in the same position as a man drawing a fixed pay of 16s. per month; but his condition would be considerably better if his land admitted of his cultivating mixed crops. Both socially and materially, these small farmers, with holdings of 5 acres of all descriptions of land, are quite on a level with respectable village shopkeepers and retail dealers. A considerable proportion of the cultivators are in debt, but not to the extent that prevails in certain other parts of India. The cause of debt most frequently arises from the misfortunes of a single season, from extravagance on the occasion of marriages and other festivals, or from speculation. This last cause chiefly affects the larger husbandmen (*jotdárs*), who frequently set up as merchants for buying up country produce, and occasionally meet with heavy losses.

Ordinary rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past twenty years. Agricultural day-labourers now receive about 3d. a day; blacksmiths and carpenters, about 16s. a month. The prices of food-grains do not seem to have risen in equal proportion. Common rice fetched 1s. 6d. per cwt. in 1786; 4s. in 1860; 5s. 5d. in 1870; and 4s. $2\frac{1}{2}$d. in 1872. The average price of common rice for the five years

ending 1882–83 was 20¼ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 6d. per cwt. In 1883–84, a year of deficient rainfall and scanty harvests, the price was 16⅝ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 10d. per cwt. The highest price reached in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 12s. 6d. per cwt.

Rangpur is not specially liable to either of the calamities of flood or drought. It is common for the crops in certain tracts to be injured by the overflow of the rivers; but on only one occasion in history, in 1787–88, has the inundation been so excessive as to affect the general harvest of the District. In that memorable year, when the river Tísta was borne in a torrent across the arable fields, one-sixth of the population are estimated to have perished from want, disease, or drowning. In 1873, the insufficiency of local rainfall was such as to demand the institution of relief operations by Government. The completion of the railway has now saved the District from any danger of isolation. If the price of rice were to rise in January as high as 13s. 6d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—There are few special industries in Rangpur. Paper is manufactured from jute in certain villages. Other products are —*satránjís* or striped cotton carpets; silk cloth called *endi* woven from the cocoon of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant; baskets and mats; brass-ware; ornaments carved in ivory and buffalo horn. Silk culture is now almost extinct in Rangpur.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. Agricultural produce is brought from the interior and stored in warehouses on the river banks until the rising of the streams in the rainy season. The chief exports are rice, jute, tobacco, potatoes, and ginger; the imports are cotton cloth, salt, hardware, and miscellaneous goods. From the north are received timber, ponies, blankets, and *ghí*. The centres of trade are—Mahíganj and Lálbágh, suburbs of the civil station; Gorámára, Kánkiná, and Kaonia on the Tísta; Nisbetganj on the Ghághát; and Kálíganj, a stopping-place for steamers on the Brahmaputra. The registration returns of river traffic for 1876–77 show a total export from the District valued at £932,442, against imports valued at £480,046. The chief exports in that year were—jute, 1,155,000 *maunds*, valued at £346,560 (placing Rangpur second to Maimansingh in the list of jute-producing Districts); tobacco, 557,400 *maunds*, valued at £278,700; rice, 145,900 *maunds*, and paddy, 45,000 *maunds*, valued together at £37,392; hides, 93,000 in number, valued at £18,591. The imports comprised—European piece-goods, £162,970; salt, 199,508 *maunds*, valued at £99,750; raw cotton, 58,400 *maunds*, valued at £87,600 (chiefly received at Chilmári from Goálpárá District and the Gáro Hills). The chief centre of registered trade was Gorámára, where the exports in 1876–77 were valued at £163,932, chiefly jute (2[illegible]6,000 *maunds*) and tobacco (148,500 *maunds*); the

imports were valued at £44,113, chiefly salt (54,900 *maunds*). Next in order is Kálídaha, with an export in 1876–77 of 151,100 *maunds* of tobacco, and Játrápur with 123,000 *maunds* of jute. Since the opening of the railway, registration of river trade has given way to that of rail-borne traffic, so that no means exist of showing the exact amount and value of the District trade, which, however, has very largely increased since 1879, when the railway was first opened. The quantity of jute exported in 1881–82 was estimated at 2,100,000 *maunds*, valued at £630,000; tobacco, 700,000 *maunds*, valued at £630,000; and rice, 1,400,000 *maunds*, valued at £350,000.

The Northern Bengal State Railway, opened in 1879, cuts through the western half of the District from south to north. A branch line from the Northern Bengal line at Parbatipur north-eastwards to Rangpur town, and to Kaunia, whence it is continued across the Tísta by a steam ferry, and the Kaunia and Dharla Railway, on to Dhubrí in the Assam District of Goálpárá. A second short branch line of 14 miles starts from the Tísta station, on the left bank of that river, to Mughal Hát, and is intended to be ultimately carried on to Kuch Behar town. In 1882, the total length of the District roads was returned at 1328 miles, maintained at a cost of £2852. In the same year there were 128 ferries, at which £1928 was collected in tolls.

Administration.—In 1875–76, the gross revenue of Rangpur District was returned at £144,159, towards which the land-tax contributed £100,008, or 70 per cent.; the total cost of officials and police of all kinds amounted to £24,994, or little more than one-sixth of the revenue. In 1883–84, the six main items of District revenue aggregated £165,165, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £102,248; excise, £17,522; stamps, £29,361; registration, £2147; road cess, £12,940; and municipal taxes, £947. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police, amounted in the same year to £23,992. The land revenue in 1883 was derived from 622 estates, owned by 3094 registered proprietors; average payment from each estate, £164, 7s. 8d., or by each proprietor, £33, 1s. In 1883 there were 3 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, and 11 magisterial and 9 civil and revenue courts open. In 1883, the regular and town police force numbered 499 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £8942. In addition there was a rural police or village watch of 4683 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5182 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·67 square mile of the area or to every 405 persons in the population. The estimated total cost of the regular police and village watch was £21,678, averaging £6, 4s. 4½d. per square mile and 3½d. per head of the population. In the same year, the total number of persons in Rangpur District convicted of any

offence, great or small, was 1513, being 1 person to every 1386 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail at Rangpur town, and three Sub-divisional lock-ups. In 1883, the average daily number of prisoners was 266, of whom only 7 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 220. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 7887 of the population.

Education has widely spread of recent years, owing to the changes by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended, first to the vernacular middle-class schools, and finally to the village schools or *páthsálás*. In 1856 there were only 21 schools in the District, attended by 971 pupils. In 1870 these numbers had risen to 230 schools, and 5361 pupils; and by 1875 (after the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms) the schools had still further increased to 525, and the pupils to 11,090. In 1883, when those reforms had received full development, the number of schools under inspection by the Education Department had increased to upwards of 860, and the pupils to about 17,000. There are 3 higher or middle-class English schools at Rangpur, Sáidpur, and Gáibándhá. The Rangpur *zilá* school had 332 pupils on its rolls on the 31st March 1884, and the normal school 47 pupils. According to the Census of 1881, there were in that year 22,819 boys and 876 girls under instruction; besides 49,843 males and 1423 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

The District is divided into 4 administrative Sub-divisions and 16 police circles (*thánás*), as follows:—(1) Rangpur or *Sadr* Sub-division, with the six *thánás* of Mahíganj, Kálíganj, Nisbetganj, Kumárganj, Mithápukur, and Pírganj. (2) Nilphamárí or Bághdogra Sub-division, with the three *thánás* of Dimlá, Jaldháká, and Darwáni. (3) Kurigrám Sub-division, with the three *thánás* of Barabárí, Nageswari, and Ulipur. (4) Gáibándhá Sub-division, with the four *thánás* of Govindganj, Bhawániganj, Sadullápur, and Sundarganj.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Rangpur does not differ materially from that common to all Lower Bengal. Diseases of a malarious origin are prevalent in the rainy season and winter, but during the remainder of the year the atmosphere is clear and dry. The average annual rainfall for a period of 25 years ending 1881 is returned at 86·52 inches, the fall from January to May averaging 15·00 inches; June to September, 66·03 inches; and October to December, 5·49 inches. In 1883–84 the rainfall was only 57·92 inches, or 28·60 inches below the average. The mean annual temperature is returned at about 81·5° F., but no thermometrical returns are available.

The endemic diseases include fever, cholera, and elephantiasis. The two former sometimes exhibit epidemic outbreaks of great severity.

The fevers are lingering, being usually attended with spleen and [illegible] complications. There were, in 1883, twelve charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 342 in-door and 56,984 out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further information regarding Rangpur, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. vii. pp. 155–352 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876); Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's MS. *Statistical Survey of Rangpur*, conducted 1809–13; *Report on the District of Rangpur*, by Mr. E. G. Glazier, C.S. (1873); *Report on the Agricultural Statistics of Rangpur*, by Bábu Gopal Chandra Das, Deputy Collector (1873). Also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; [illegible] the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of [illegible] Government up to 1883–84.]

Rangpur. — *Sadr* [illegible] quarters Sub-division of Rangpur District, Bengal. Area [illegible] villages, 2336; houses, 130,525. Population [illegible] and females 328,226; total, 672,662. Classified [illegible] there were—Muhammadans, 427,004; Hindus [illegible] Christians, 39; Buddhists, 22; Brahmos, 7; Jains, 153; and [illegible] 1232. Average density of population, 584 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·12; persons per village, 276; houses per square mile, 115; persons per house, 5·1. This Sub-division comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Mahíganj, Káliganj, Nisbetganj, Kumárganj, Mithápukur, and Pírganj. In 1883 it contained 6 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts, a regular police force of 272 men, and a rural constabulary of 1638 men.

Rangpur.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ghághát river, in lat. 25° 44′ 55″ N., and long. 89° 17′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 13,320, namely, males 8011, and females 5309. Muhammadans number 6648; Hindus, 6476; and 'others,' 196. Rangpur is a municipality, and consists, besides the civil station, of the hamlets of Mahíganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £1598, of which £947 was derived from taxation; average rate of taxation, 1s. 5d. per head of population. The town contains the District head-quarter courts and offices, police station, jail, and a dispensary. The name of Rangpur —'the abode of bliss'—is said to be derived from the legend that Rájá Bhagadattá, who took part in the war of the *Mahábhárata*, possessed a country residence here. Rangpur was captured by the Afghán king, Husain Sháh, who ruled at Gaur from 1497 to 1521 A.D.—*See* RANGPUR DISTRICT.

Rangpur.—Ruins in Sibságar District, Assam, immediately south of Sibságar town, marking the site of the residence of the Aham kings during the 17th century. The palace and the neighbouring temple of Jaiságar are both said to have been built by Rájá Rudra Singh about

The place is now buried in deep jungle; and the walls remain [illegible] though the roof has partly fallen in. Arrangements are now [illegible]g made to clear away the jungle and open up access to the palace. The temple on the bank [illegible] the Jaiságar (a large artificial lake nearly equal in area to the Sib[illegible] lake) is of great beauty [illegible] in good preservation, though religious worship is no longer [illegible] there, and the idol has been removed. Before Rangpur, GARHGAON, in the immediate neighbourhood, was the Aham capital; and after 1784, Rája Gaurináth moved his residence from Rangpur to Jorhát.

Rangún (*Ran-kún*).—District and town in Lower Burma.—*See* RANGOON.

Ránia.—Town and municipali[illegible] a *tahsil*, Sirsa District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 28' [illegible] long. [illegible] situated on the right bank of the river Ghaggar, [illegible] Population (1881) 4626, namely, Muham[illegible] 1186; Jains, 162; and Sikhs, 21. Number of [illegible] income (1883–84), £131, or an average of 6¾d. [illegible] population. The town was formerly the head-quarters [illegible] [fre]ebooting Bhalti Nawábs of Ránia, whose last representative was executed for complicity in the Mutiny of 1857, and his estates confiscated. Little trade; manufacture of leather-work, *hukás*, and coarse cloth.

Ránibennúr.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the extreme south-east corner of the District. Bounded on the north by the Karajgi Sub-division, on the east and south by the Tungabhadra river, and on the west by the Kod Sub-division. Area, 405 square miles. Population (1872) 86,601; (1881) 74,213, namely, 37,538 males and 36,675 females, occupying 13,068 houses, in 3 towns and 119 villages. Hindus number 67,985; Muhammadans, 6172; and 'others,' 56. The country is generally flat with a low range on the north, and a group of hills in the east; well supplied with water. Soil black in the low-lying parts, and red on the hills and uplands. The Harihar branch of the South Maráthá Railway traverses the Sub-division, with three stations—Baiadgi, Ránibennúr, and Chelgiri. In 1881–82, of 110,137 acres, the whole area held for tillage, 15,077 were fallow or under grass. Principal crops—cereals and millets, 95,060 acres; pulses, 11,580 acres; oil-seeds, 2894 acres; fibres, 23,120 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 7604 acres. The Sub-division contained in 1884—criminal courts, 4; police circle (*thána*), 1; regular police, 38 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 190. revenue, £15,804. Schools, 24.

Ránibennúr.—Chief town of the Ránibennúr Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the road from Poona to Madras, about 80 miles south-east of Dhárwár town, in lat. 14° 37' 10" N., and long. 75° 40' 20" E. Population (1881) 10,202, namely,

5061 males and 5141 females. Hindus numb[illegible] 1804; and Jains. 11. Municipal revenue (188[illegible]) [illegible] of taxation, 9¼d. A thriving town, noted for th[illegible] and cotton fabrics, and with a considerable tr[illegible] 1800, while in pursuit of the Maráthá freebooter Dhu[illegible] Colonel Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington), being [illegible] the garrison, attacked and captured the town. In 1818, a[illegible] General Munro's force occupied Ránibennúr. Post-office, tr[illegible] bungalow, four boys' and one girls' schools. Station on the H[illegible] branch of the South Maráthá Railway. Weekly market on Sunday.

Ránígám. — Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or divisio[illegible] Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separ[illegible] shareholders or tribute-payers. Situated 6 miles north-west of Jes[illegible] Area, 3 square miles. Population (1881) 738. Estimated revenu[illegible] £2556; tribute of £71, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Ániganj. — Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal; situated between 23° 23′ and 23° 52′ 45″ N. lat., and between 86° 50′ 30″ and 87° 37′ E. long. Area, 671 square miles; towns and villages, 712; number of houses, 57,298, namely, occupied 52,633, and unoccupied 4665. Total population (1872) 238,105; (1881) 284,414, namely, males 139,754, and females 144,660. Increase of population between 1872 and 1881, 46,309, or 19·45 per cent. in nine years. Average density of population, 423·9 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·06; persons per village, 400; houses per square mile, 85·39; persons per house, 5·4. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 261,778; Muhammadans, 15,473; Christians, 742; Jews, 3; and non-Hindu Santáls, 6418. This Sub-division comprises the 3 police circles of Ániganj, Assensol, and Káksá. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, a regular police force of 78, and a village police of 1650 men.

Ániganj.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Ániganj Sub-division, Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Dámodar river, in lat. 23° 36′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 8′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 10,792, namely, males 6124, and females 4668. Hindus number 8794; Muhammadans, 1828; and 'others,' 170. Municipal income (1883–84), £883, of which £766 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 5½d. per head. Ániganj town is the centre of the Ániganj coal industry; and its prosperity dates from the discovery and working of the mines, and also from the time when it was made a station on the East Indian Railway, 121 miles from Howrah. It is now one of the principal seats of the District trade. Dispensary.

Ániganj—Coal-field in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 35′ to 23° 45′ N., long. 86° 40′ to 87° 15′ E. Area, about 500 square miles.

[illegible]ce of from 120 to 160 miles north west of Calcutta, [illegible] few miles east of Ranigánj town to several miles west [illegible] river; the greatest length from east to west being about [illegible] the greatest breadth from north to south, 18 miles. [illegible]er portion of the coal-bearing strata lies between the [illegible] and the Ajai, the former river receiving the principal drainage. [illegible]ace is undulating, and the dense jungle which formerly [illegible] it has now been cleared nearly throughout. The soil is [illegible]ly clay, in some parts alluvial, but in others formed from [illegible] decomposition of rocks. South of Mangalpur, in the Sirgurra [illegible], are the mines of Harishpur and Bábusol, where the seam is 25 [illegible] thick, with 16 feet of excellent quality. The coal of the Ráni[gan]j field, like most Indian coals, is a non-coking bituminous coal, [co]mposed of distinct laminæ of a bright jetty coal, and of a dull, earthy rock, with a large proportion of volatile matter and ash, the amount of the latter averaging about 15 per cent. (as against [illegible] per cent. in English coal), and ranging from 8 to 25 per cent. A sample of a very pure coal from Siársol gave the following results:— Volatile, 40 per cent.; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent.; ash, 2·5 per cent.

Mr. Blandford, in his Report on the Geological Survey, 1858-60, states that in the Ráníganj bed nine seams (perhaps eleven), with an aggregate thickness of 120 feet, are worked in the eastern portion; in the western, eleven, with an aggregate thickness of about 100 feet; and in the Lower Dámodar section of the field, four seams, with an aggregate thickness of 69 feet. But more extensive underground explorations are necessary in order to fix the absolute thickness of the coal seams in this tract. The principal drawbacks to the extended employment of Ráníganj coal in India, and the reasons why the expensive English coal is still generally employed, especially by sea-going steamers on long voyages, are the following:—1st. The non-coking property of Ráníganj coal: 2nd. The small proportion of fixed carbon, upon which the value of coal for heating purposes depends: 3rd. The large proportion of ash; a larger quantity of Ráníganj coal is therefore required to perform the same duty as good English coal: 4th. Its liability to spontaneous ignition, which is mainly due to the large quantity of iron pyrites in the coal; but this disadvantage may to a certain extent be avoided by shipping direct from the mine, without exposing the coal to any lengthened action of moisture. Dr. Oldham, in his report on 'The Coal Resources and Production of India' (1867), states that '*the very best coal of Indian fields only touches the average of English coal.*' Practical results also attest the inferiority of the former. The two most heavily-worked lines of railway in India, viz. the East Indian (Bengal) and the Great Indian Peninsula (Bombay), use respectively Indian and English coal; and their relative consump-

tion is 150 tons per mile in the former, as compa
the latter. The price of Ráníganj coal varies fro
£1, 5s. 7d. a ton in Calcutta.

'The Ráníganj coal-field is the largest and most im
areas in which coal is worked in India. Its proximity to t
of railway, and also to the port of Calcutta, tends to give it pr
over less favourably situated localities. In the year 1774,
known to occur there, and so long ago as 1777 was actually
In 1830 several collieries of considerable extent had been opene
and were, we have reason to believe, in a flourishing condition.
total area of coal-bearing rocks which is exposed is about 500 sq
miles; but it is possible that the real area may be even double t
since on the east the rocks dip under and are completely concealed
alluvium. Throughout this area a central zone includes the princip
mines, and the chimneys which dot this tract constitute it the black
country of India. At the present time (1879) there are about six principal European companies engaged in the extraction of coal, while many minor firms and native associations contribute to swell the total amount raised.

'Formerly a large proportion of the coal was obtained by open workings and quarries; but at the present day most of the seams which were accessible in this way have been exhausted, and regular mining is now carried on with more or less system. The miners are, however, individually, in some cases, allowed a degree of freedom, or rather licence, which would never be permitted in European mines. They chiefly belong to two races, the Bauris and the Santáls; the former using the pick, while the latter cannot be induced to work with any other tool than a crowbar, with which they produce an altogether disproportionate amount of small coal and dust. The "pillar and stall" is generally practised in preference to the "long wall" system of "getting" the coal. None of the mines are of great depth; and a perfect freedom from fire and choke-damp renders it possible to carry on the work without its being necessary to adopt the precautions which in England only too often fail to secure the object aimed at. Many of the seams are of considerable thickness; one which is worked contains nearly 40 feet of coal. As a rule, however, the thick seams, especially those in the lower measures, do not contain the best coal. Compared with ordinary English coal, the Ráníganj coal, and Indian coal generally, are very much inferior in working power; still they are capable of generating steam in both locomotive and other engines.'

The latest official return gives the average annual out-turn of 50 out of the 53 mines in Bardwán District (Ráníganj coal-field), for the three years previous to 1883, at 574,930 tons; the output in 1883 being 603,591 tons. For 5 mines no returns were given, and no information

... 50 working mines in 1883 afforded employment to ... n, and children.

... small town and municipality in Purniah District, Bengal; ... ámlá, in lat. 25° 51′ 40″ N., and long. 87° 57′ 55″ E., 16 ... west of Basantpur. Population (1881) 5978, namely, ... 80, and Muhammadans 198. Municipal income (1883–84), ... verage incidence of taxation, 4⅞d. per head of population within ... al limits; municipal police, 12 men, besides 13 maintained for ... tection of the surrounding country. Seat of trade in rice, indigo, ... obacco, etc. Ránígan contains a primary school, attended by ... 50 boys.

... ánigat (or '*Queen's Rock*'), ancient fortress in the independent ... údú Khel hills, adjoining Pesháwar District, Punjab, identified with ... he Aornos of Alexander's historians. In 1848, General Cunningham suggested that the 'vast hill fortress of Ránígat, situated immediately below the small Sayyid hamlet of Nográm, about 16 miles north by west of Nográm, corresponded in all essential particulars with the description of Aornos, as given by Arrian, Strabo, and Diodorus, excepting in its elevation, the height of Ránígat being not more than 1000 feet, which is, however, a very great elevation for so large a fortress.' The ascent from Nográm village to the summit of the hill is steep, and the distance about three-quarters of a mile. In 1854, General James Abbott suggested the Mahában hill as the true identification; and in 1863, Mr. Loewenthal brought forward the claims of Rájá Hodi's fort, opposite Attock, a site first suggested by General Court. After a full reconsideration of the whole case, General Cunningham has again urged the identification of Ránígat with Aornos. The 'Queen's Rock' is a huge upright block on the north edge of the fort, on which Rájá Vara's *rání* is said to have seated herself daily. The chief objection to the identification is the difference in height,—Ránígat being only about 1000 feet high, while the Aornus of Arrian was said to be 6674. For a complete statement of the case, see General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 58–78 (1871).

Ráníkhet.—Military sanitarium in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 39′ 50″ N., long. 79° 33′ E. Ráníkhet has of late grown into importance as a sanitarium for European troops. It has several advantages over the other Himálayan sanitaria, as regards level land for building purposes, and accessibility from the plains, and is also a favourite summer resort for European civilians and others. Some years ago it was proposed to move the military head-quarters of the Indian army from Simla to Ráníkhet. Population (February 1881) 5984, namely, Hindus, 3313; Muhammadans, 1090; Christians, 1573; and 'others,' 8. A special Census taken in the height of the season in September 1880 returned the population at 6638, namely, Hindus,

3243; Muhammadans, 1293; Europeans, 2072; Christians, 7; 'others,' 16. If the water-supply a connected with the accommodation of Europeans solved, Ránîkhet may yet become one of the most im Indian hill stations. Its elevation is sufficient to rend salubrious retreat from the plains.

Ránî-núr (*'The Queen's Palace'*).—Rock cave in Khan Purí District, Orissa. One of the most modern of a series temples with which Khandgiri and the neighbouring hill of Ud are honeycombed. The earliest of these excavations exhibit wh believed to be the oldest memorials of Buddhism, and the first h dwellings yet discovered in India. The Ránî-núr is the latest and elaborate of these excavations, to which dates have been vario ascribed from 200 B.C. to 1000 A.D. It consists of two rows of cel one above the other, shaded by pillared verandahs, with a court-yar cut out of the hillside. Two stalwart figures, in coats of mail down to the knees, stand forth from the wall as guards. One of them wears boots half-way up the knee; the other seems to have on greaves, the feet being naked, but the legs encased in armour. The court-yard opens towards the south, and is lined on the other three sides with rows of chambers. On the right and left appear to be the cooking-room and common dining-hall. The verandahs are commodious, and the rock brackets, which extend from the pillars to support the intervening roof, are finely sculptured. The upper storey contains four large cells, each 14 feet long by 7 broad, and 3 feet 9 inches high. The verandah outside is about 60 feet long by 10 broad, and 7 in height. Each cell has two doors, and at either end is a lion, hewn out of the rock.

The upper verandah of the Queen's Palace is adorned with a sculptured biography of its founder. The first tableau, worn almost level with the rock, seems to represent the sending of presents, which preceded the matrimonial alliances of the ancient dynasties of India. A running figure stands dimly out, apparently carrying a tray of fruit. The second appears to be the arrival of the suitor. It delineates the meeting of the elephants, and a number of confused human forms, one of whom rides on a lion. From the third tableau the biography becomes more distinct. It represents the courtship. The prince is introduced by an old lady to the princess, who sits cross-legged on a high seat, with her eyes averted, and her arms round the neck of one of her maidens below. The fourth is the fight. The prince and princess, each armed with swords and oblong shields, engage in combat. The fifth is the abduction, depicting the princess defeated and carried off in the prince's arms, her sword lost, but her shield still grasped in her hand. The prince holds his sword drawn, and is amply clothed. The princess is scantily draped, and her hair knotted in a perpendicular

the top of her head, and a long tress falling over aist. She wears heavy anklets. The sixth is the rms the centre of the piece, on one side of which the ncess are shooting at a bounding antelope; while a led near, and attendants armed with clubs. The prince draws he perpendicular fashion of English archers. It is about his own height. A lady looks down upon the chase from the court scene follows, in which the prince sits on a throne on , with attendants holding fans on either side. Dancing girls and ans are grouped in front, and the princess appears on a throne on xtreme right. The eighth and ninth tableaux are effaced. Three es of dalliance between the prince and the princess follow, and the es in the upper storey ends in a mysterious running figure with a ake twisted round him. The lower verandah exhibits the sequel. A onvent scene discloses the princess retired from the vanities of life, sitting at her cell door in the upper storey of a sculptured monastery, with her ladies, also turned ascetics, sitting at separate doors in the lower one. The remaining tableaux, four in number, represent the prince, princess, and courtiers as hermits, with their hands on their breasts in an attitude of abstraction, freed from human passion, and wrapped in contemplation of the Deity. Throughout, the prince is generally fully dressed, with a cotton garment falling from his girdle, but leaving the leg bare from the knee. The lady wears a head-dress something like the Prince of Wales' feathers, with her hair done up in a towering chignon. A scroll of birds and beasts and leaves runs the whole way along. The battle and hunting scenes are given with much spirit, the animals being very different from the conventional creatures of modern Hindu art. The sculptured legend of the princess is now much worn by climatic action, and its episodes are to a large extent conjectural.

Ránípet.—Town in Wálájápet *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated on the north bank of the Palár river, in lat. 12° 56′ N., and long. 79° 23′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 3697, namely, Hindus, 2211; Muhammadans, 1183; and Christians, 303. Number of houses, 556. Ránípet comprises the European quarter of Arcot town. A village founded opposite Arcot, about the year 1771, by Saádat-ullá Khán, in honour of the youthful widow of Desingh Rájá of Gingi, and named after her Ránípet. The place was of no importance till constituted a British cantonment. It then rapidly extended and absorbed the adjacent village of Hassanálípet. Ránípet is the head-quarters of the Sub-Collector, and was formerly a large cavalry station, now abandoned. The barracks, however, are still in good preservation, and are occupied as a hospital, and as quarters for the families of sepoys on foreign service. The Roman Catholics and

e American Mission have churches in the town. ıpported by the local fund committee, but under th he head of the American Mission. Every Friday a .. parade-ground north of the town, where a larger numbe bought and sold than in any other place in the District. Lákh Garden,' an extensive grove of mangoes, is near Ráníp 32 per cent. of the population are Muhammadans, consisting sepoys and their families.

Ránípur. — Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Pro situated on the old Jhánsi and Nowgong (Naugáon) road, 3 mile of Mau (Mhow), with which it forms one municipality. Lat. 25° 14′ 4 long. 79° 10′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 6846, namely, Hindus, 61 Muhammadans, 406; and Jains, 339. Municipal income of the uni towns Mau-Ránípur (1883–84), £1459, of which £1229 was derive from taxation, mostly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅞d. per head of the population (22,827) within municipal limits. Considerable manufacture of *kharúa* and *kasbí* cloth, dyed red with the root of the *ál* (Morinda citrifolia). The principal inhabitants are Jains, who compose the wealthy merchant class, and have a very handsome temple, with two high steeples and numerous cupolas. Fine *bázár* and *sarái* or native inn, with old and picturesque stone-built houses, and two small but pretty Jain shrines. Metalled roads and masonry drains. Founded in 1678 by Rání Hirá Deví, widow of Rájá Pahár Singh of Orchha State. Police station, post-office.

Ránípur. — Town in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the main road from Haidarábád (Hyderábád) to Rohri, 45 miles south-west of Rohri, and 15 due west of Diji fort. Lat. 27° 17′ N., long. 68° 31′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 6310, chiefly Muhammadans; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Said to derive its name from the circumstance of the Rání or queen of Jám Daria Khán, a prince who reigned at Tatta, in Lower Sind, having fled hither after her husband had been killed in battle. Once the seat of a considerable manufacture of cotton cloth.

Ranjít, Great.—River of Bengal, which rises in Independent Sikkim and enters Dárjíling District from the west, forming part of the northern boundary. After a short course from west to east, it falls into the TISTA (lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 88° 29′ E.). Its affluents above the point of junction are the Rangnu and the Chhota or Little Ranjít. The Ranjít, although not navigable, being purely a mountain stream, is not fordable within Dárjíling at any time of the year. It has shelving banks, generally clothed with forest, but with patches of cultivation at intervals; the bed is stony and sandy.

Ranjít, Little.—River of Bengal, rising in the Singálilá range, on the borders of Sikkim and Nepál. It flows generally in a north-easte

...into the GREAT RANJIT on its right bank. In ... as it is everywhere fordable. The principal tributari... are the Káhel, the Hospital Jhorá, the Riling, an...

...—Town in Dhandhuka Sub-division, Ahmadábád District ...ctorate). Lat. 22° 22′ N., and long. 71° 45′ E. Situated ...north bank of the Bhádhar river, at its meeting with the ... Population (1881) 5726. On the raised strip of land between ... rivers is a large District bungalow; and near it, an old ...partly in ruins, the chief ornament of the town. Ránpur was ...ed about the beginning of the 14th century by Ránáji Gohel, a ...out chieftain, the ancestor of the Bhaunagar family. Here his ...er, Sekáji, had settled, and named it Sejákpur; but the son having ...strengthened Sejákpur with a fort, called it Ránpur. Sometime in the 15th century, the ruling chief embraced the Muhammadan religion and founded the family of the present Ranpur Molesaláms. About 1640, Azam Khán built the castle of Shábápur, whose ruins still ornament the town. In the 18th century, Ranpur passed to the Gáekwár, and from him, to the British in 1802. A station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Post-office.

Ranpur.—Native State of Orissa, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal; lying between lat. 19° 52′ 45″ and 20° 12′ N., and between long. 85° 9′ 15″ and 85° 29′ 15″ E. Bounded on the north, east, and south by Purí District; and on the west by Nayágarh State. The south-west part of Ranpur is a region of hills, forest-clad and almost entirely uninhabited, which wall in its whole western side, except at a single point where a pass leads into the adjoining State of Nayágarh. Area, 203 square miles; villages, 308; houses, 6572. Population (1881) 36,539, namely, males 18,382, and females 18,157. Average density of population, 180 persons per square mile; persons per village, 168; persons per house, 5·6. Classified according to religion, there are—Hindus, 34,260; Muhammadans, 186; and non-Hindu aborigines, 2093, principally Kandhs. The only town is the Rájá's place of residence, situated in lat. 20° 3′ 55″ N., and long. 85° 23′ 26″ E., which consists of one long and wide street, containing about 600 houses. The country products are here bartered at markets twice a week for iron, cotton, blankets, cotton cloth, silk, wheat, and clarified butter, brought from Khandpárá; and for fish from the Chilká Lake. The revenue of the Rájá is estimated at about £3000; the tribute paid to the British Government is £140. The Rájá's militia consists of 8, and the police ... Forty-one schools are scattered through Ranpur. ...tradition ... that this State was founded 3600 years ago by a hunter ... its name is said to be derived from a giant ...